The Nation.

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The Week.

"No coal strike" is good news to every man, woman, and child in the region where anthracite is the common fuel, as well as to the country at large. The decision of the miners to continue work under the award of the Strike Commission is evidently prompted by a desire to let well alone. Throughout the negotiations John Mitchell and his committee have been desirous of avoiding a strike. Very early they receded from one or two demands which were manifestly absurd; and then they made a plausible offer to submit the whole controversy to the original Strike Commission. Whatever be the facts as to the relative increase in cost of living and in wages, the miners must be fairly well off. Mitchell admits that his reason for yielding was fear that the miners would not back him up. That means, of course, that under present conditions the miners are so comfortable that by a strike they would lose far more than they would gain. Had the operators acceded to the blanket request for arbitration, and had the Commission discovered that the former award was still fair and that the miners had no grievance, popular sympathy would have been with the operators, on the general ground that the miners had kicked up a row about nothing.

Eighty per cent. of the tonnage on the Great Lakes is tied up by the strike ordered by the Lake Pilots' Protective Association for recognition by the vessel owners. No question of wages or of hours is involved. The issue is single: Shall the union or the owners control the pilots? The strike is almost exactly a repetition of the unsuccessful one of two years ago, when the lake captains went out because their affiliation with a union was regarded by the owners as inimical to the success of the fleet. Now, the owners say that the captains and the pilots, who are really mates, are the only representatives they have on the vessels who are not subject to the orders of a labor union. They see no reason why these men should not continue to look out first for their employers' interests. They declare that not more than 10 per cent. of the mates are in the union, and that they are not the real instigators of the strike. Back of the pilots' union stands the International 'Longshoremen, Marine, and Transport Workers' Association, whose members, as well as the ore and freight-handlers and grain scoopers, are out on a sympathetic strike. The settlement of the dispute seems to depend mainly upon the urgency of the Steel Trust's need for keeping its ore boats going, since its fleet is the largest on the lakes, and any agreement it made would be likely to govern.

The message of President Roosevelt and the report of Commissioner Garfield on the relations between the Standard Oil Company and the railways are documents which may well have an important effect upon politics. As the President and the Commissioner of Corporations sum it up, "the Standard Oil Company has benefited enormously up almost to the present moment by secret rates"; the shipments of the Standard Oil have been "falsely way-billed" and "blind-billed"; many of the discriminations have been "clearly in violation of the Interstate Commerce law"; and most of the railroads, when discovered, have promptly stopped their illegal practices. The President urges that, in view of this notable case, "the only way by which the discriminations can be cured is by conferring upon the Interstate Commerce Commission the power to take quick and effective action in regulating the rates." We cannot see, however, that Mr. Garfield's report, or fifty like it, however much they may inflame popular feeling, could alter the necessity for a carefully drawn clause under which the rate-making power of the Commission shall be subject to full review by the courts. In the meantime, the President has a strong weapon in the existing statute. The penalty for violation of the Interstate Commerce law can be enforced against both railway and shipper—a fine of $5,000 for each offence and imprisonment for two years. If prosecution of the law-breakers against whom the President declaims with such fervor were pressed to the bitter end by the Department of Justice, we should have a wholesome recognition of the rights of the small shipper, even without new legal machinery.

The debate as to whether the President has "surrendered" in accepting the so-called Allison amendment to the Railway-rate bill, is purely academic. Consistency has never been President Roosevelt's ruling passion. His motto has always been that a wise man changes his mind as often as may be desirable. To-day he declares roundly, "I am standing in my original position." In that case his original plan was to give the courts broad powers in reviewing the decisions of the Interstate Commerce Commission; and those spokesmen who thought he was for "limited review" have been mistaken. They took his words in a narrow, literal sense, whereas he, like certain theologians, has been using language in a large, spiritual, or even allegorical signification. The main thing is that the Allison amendment removes the last doubt as to the constitutionality of the Rate bill. The advocates of "limited review" have obviously been trying to come as near as they could to beating the Constitution in order to "soak it to the railroads"; but this amusing enterprise they have finally abandoned as impracticable. The President heartily applauds. "No genuine friend of the bill," he writes, "can object to it [the Allison amendment] without stultifying himself." And, we may add, no genuine friend of Constitutional government can object to it without stultifying himself.

The amendment upon which the Republican Senators have come together reads as follows:

> "The venue of suits brought in any of the circuit courts of the United States against the Interstate Commerce Commission to enjoin, set aside, annul, or suspend any order or requirement of the Commission shall be in the district where the carrier against whom such order or requirement may have been made has its principal operating office; and jurisdiction to hear and determine such suit is hereby vested in such courts."

This clause, on the face of it, allows the court to suspend any ruling of the Interstate Commerce Commission until the reasonableness of such an order shall have been determined. This would seem to be a "broad review" in any proper sense of that term. "The power to take quick and effective action," which the President wishes to have conferred on the Interstate Commerce Commission, may be somewhat curtailed by the courts; but this very clause providing for a judicial review will in the long run be the protection of the small and independent shipper. In complex matters involving nice questions of law, the race is not always to the swift. A law which might prove unconstitutional and therefore impracticable in operation, could never be quick and effective. A provision which safeguards all interests, even those of an oppressive railway or an extortionate monopoly, is, after all, the strongest bulwark of the feeble and the downtrodden.

Whether Senator Tillman's remarks in Congress on the Federal judiciary on Thursday will or will not give to President Roosevelt a sense of gratification because his own angry denunciation of Judge Humphrey's decision is bearing fruit, we do not pretend to know. People at all familiar with American public affairs will not, however, be surprised to see the attack of the President on a

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Federal judge so promptly echoed, with additional emphasis and broader application, by radical agitators. If assaults on the judiciary reappear later on, in the platforms of parties appealing to social unrest and class prejudice, there will be still less occasion for surprise. Mr. Tillman's speech appears to have been made up, for the most part, of country newspaper clippings telling of judges who travelled with railway lobbyists, shot game in defiance of State laws, and appeared on the bench in a state of intoxication. We do not happen to know whether these specific allegations are true or not, and we doubt if Senator Tillman does. If they are true, the Constitution and the law provide adequate means of dealing with them. But that a collection of alleged incidents of the sort should be brought forward in Congressional speeches, with the obvious inference that Federal courts cannot be relied upon for honesty, is something which, we imagine, sober-minded citizens will hardly enjoy. There are those who will say that, in the present state of the public mind, such insinuations are a spark in a powder-magazine. Who is responsible for it? Coming from Senator Tillman alone, whose attitude towards the Federal courts was familiar as far back as his Governorship of South Carolina, comment on his speech would probably be that he must not be taken too seriously. Following a formal message to Congress by the President of the United States, in which a Federal judge was accused of "making a farce of the law," with the added declaration that "I can hardly believe that the ruling of Judge Humphrey will be followed by other judges," the Tillman diatribe at once gets a very different sort of hearing.

If Senator Aldrich kills the bill admitting denaturized alcohol free of duty, he will rouse much resentment, and thus do not a little to strengthen the movement for general revision of the tariff. The correspondent of such an orthodox Republican paper as the *Tribune* asserts that, although a majority of the Senate Committee on Finance will vote for a favorable report, nevertheless the measure is to be referred to a sub-committee. This action is nominally intended to provide what Senator Aldrich calls "certain safeguards," but it may postpone the matter to another session. In the meantime, the members of the House of Representatives are much disturbed by the threats against a bill which they passed almost unanimously. The entire Illinois delegation has taken pains to go to the Senate and urge the extreme necessities of the case. Their arguments are substantially those which the editor of the *American Agriculturist* brings forward in an open letter to Senator Aldrich. The *Agriculturist* flatly asks the Senator from Rhode Island whether he fears that the proposed legislation "may interfere with the Standard Oil Company's monopoly of gasolene, naphtha, etc.," or may "destroy the wood-alcohol industry." Both the Standard Oil Company and the manufacturers of wood alcohol are, in the opinion of the *Agriculturist*, able to look out for themselves. On the other hand, the denaturized alcohol will supply farmers and all other classes of the community with cheap light, heat, and power.

The "Patent-Medicine bill" failed of passage this year by the action of some of its critical friends who insisted on amendments at a time when any amendments whatever meant the failure of the measure. The eleventh-hour amendments were "exemptions." That is to say, it was sought to permit the sale of certain specific drugs, regarded by the sponsors of the bill as dangerous, without giving any warning to the purchaser. It is urged that certain of the drugs named in the bill as first drawn, while poisonous, were not "habit-forming." This might be an excellent argument against a law that should seek to prohibit the sale of these ingredients entirely. But the Stevens-Wainwright bill did nothing of the sort. It merely insisted that the buyer of these patent remedies should know what he was buying. It may plausibly be argued that all ingredients of proprietary medicines, poisonous or not, should be honestly published. We retain our former confidence that the passage of this bill, or one like it, is only a question of time. Meanwhile, there is another year of grace for the nostrum-makers.

Reed Smoot was first brought before the Senate Committee on Privileges and Elections in March, 1903. Now, in May, 1906, the committee resolves that he is not entitled to his seat as a Senator of the United States from the State of Utah. In the three years of his trial one Senator, Hoar of Massachusetts, has died; another, McComas of Maryland, has retired from the Senate; and a third, Clarke of Arkansas, has refused to serve and been displaced by Patterson of Colorado. It has been freely said that the committee was not at all anxious to come to any agreement during Smoot's term, but pressure from the anti-Mormon element in Utah, Idaho, and the Pacific slope has finally forced this 8-to-5 vote for expulsion. Three of the Senator's six years of service in Washington have passed, and the general feeling is that he has been a useful, hard-working member. His committee assignments have included membership in the Forest Reservations, Pensions, and Public Lands committees of the Senate. There has been no charge of polygamous practices brought against him. The case rested on the implication that his oath of allegiance to the Mormon Church prevented him from giving complete allegiance to the United States. In ten days the Senate will be asked to vote on the resolution of the committee proposed by Senator Heyburn.

The bulky 'Report on Inspection of United States Consulates in the Orient,' which has been sent by the President to Congress, embodies chiefly the confidential report of Herbert H. D. Peirce, who visited these Far Eastern consulates in 1904. Mr. Peirce found that there was no difficulty in locating the trans-Suez thirst. Consul-General McWade at Canton had been overcome by it. Vice-Consul-General Colegrove appears in the report as the Ulysses of a dipsomaniac Odyssey in the China Seas. The consular thirst, it appears, is not merely raised, but reasonably gratified. In perusing the records of Consul-General Williams of Singapore, McWade of Canton, and Goodnow of Shanghai—in considering the mass of accusation and recrimination between these corrupt officials and the commercial *canaille* with which they dwelt—one has a very striking commentary on Mr. Kipling's theory of the equivalence of the best and worst. O. F. Williams's case is a mild one. He merely carried on a debt-collecting business against the Sultan of Lingga and Rhio, to whom he was not accredited, in behalf of Chinese and other creditors. The dunning of the Sultan must count among the finer international pleasantries. Consul Williams "hesitates to take official action" (in the matter of a Chinese claim), but makes a "friendly request" for answer "by return mail." After allowing the Sultan three weeks, Williams writes, concerning the claim of $9,091.76, "in which I have an interest," that, since his Majesty is "a ruler of vast wealth, you must have failed to get my letter." Again Williams requests "reply by return mail," and concludes in the most amicable spirit: "It will be much pleasanter and better to settle the matter at once, as we are each busy men."

The charges against McWade are made by persons more or less suspect themselves, but this much is certain: that he employed as consular clerk an ex-convict, Tony de Silva, who had served three years at Hongkong for larceny, and that he was in correspondence with an agent, Charles E. Richardson, concerning the fraudulent issue of passports to Chinese laborers in transit for the Philippine Islands. Goodnow's foible was "unofficial fees"—petty items that could be tacked on, or, complaint arising, taken off from the legal schedule. Eighty-two charges against him were made in all, varying in seriousness from petty "unofficial" extortions and legal fees asked for services not

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rendered, to issuing false passports and fraudulent registration of five Chinese steamers under the American flag. Characteristic of Goodnow's methods is the charge of $85.75 for probating the will of Frank Reid, deceased (Report, page 272). On complaint, the fees were reduced to $52.75. The reduced bill still contained about $17.50 of illegal charges, which indicated to Inspector Peirce that "the consul-general or some one in his office is acting as an attorney before his own court and collecting the fees as official court fees."

The belated attack of the "hyena politicians" on Gov. Hoch of Kansas made it certain that he would be renominated by the Republicans. It used to be understood in the West that an attack on the private character of a candidate, in order to have any effect, must be made on the very day of the convention. Twenty-four hours of reflection was judged to be sufficient time for a reaction against the "slanderers" to set in. The Marion editor is the logical choice of the party, and, with the exception of W. R. Stubbs, the strongest candidate that could have been named, yet his backers are undeniably nervous. The newspapers of Topeka and Kansas City have been pointing to the strong Democratic ticket headed by ex-Senator Harris, and suggesting that the Republicans come out with a platform as clear on State issues as that adopted by the Democrats. Two definite questions have been raised by the Democrats—strict enforcement of prohibition and the reform of the State Board of Railroad Commissioners. At Topeka last week the Republicans met these issues by denouncing the Steel Trust and agreeing that President Roosevelt should be encouraged in his fight for rate regulation. There is every prospect of an unusually lively campaign, with the Republicans, for the first time in years, on the defensive.

Our eight prize-winners at Athens deserve heartiest congratulations. To win is agreeable under any circumstances; to win under the shadow of the Acropolis must pass for the fine flower of athletic triumph. The victory of the American team is all the more welcome that its personnel was on the whole of a merely average sort. Only two or three of the strongest men were able to make the trip. Accordingly, the Olympian honors so easily won are really a tribute to the average excellence of our athletes. On the other hand, the difficulty of securing strong teams for games so remote makes the first place more or less a matter of chance. For example, the loss of Ewry or Sheridan, winners in such specialties as the standing jumps and the weights, would have pared down our victory by a third. An international honor, however, like a gift horse, should not be scrutinized too closely. The present one does very well. Considering the games more broadly, one is tempted, of course, to emphasize the fact that they are a revival—to imagine them as like the ancient meetings as possible. A very little study of the events provokes, on the contrary, a lively sense of the differences. What would the Greeks of the Olympiads have said to rowing—then the work of slaves—rifle and pistol shooting, shot-gun practice, and lawn tennis? That they would have regarded these unspectacular sports with keen curiosity at least is certain, but it is no wonder that the modern Athenians reserve the enthusiasm for the Marathon race—an event that, besides its historical association, goes back to the elemental conception of the hero athlete. The Canadian winner may not in the ancient fashion receive the award of a statue; the cable reports, however, that, if he desires a running mate for life, he may at least have his choice of Galateas.

The tendency of the Irishman to be "agin the government" is illustrated anew at Westminster in the case of the Education bill. John Redmond's Nationalists cannot and will not support it. The decision is surprising because Mr. Birrell's very contentious measure applies merely to England and Wales, and the natural attitude of the Irish members would have been one of complete disinterestedness. This is, however, a pose impossibly difficult for any Celt to maintain, and one may assume that Mr. Redmond's group is merely entering a protest in behalf of the few Roman Catholic "voluntary schools" that are to pass out of the hands of the Church or else lose their subsidies. There is a curious rumor afloat that some of Keir Hardie's Laborites will oppose the bill because it is still too favorable to the religious denominations. As an old-time Calvinist, Mr. Birrell is accustomed to face without wincing the formula, "You'll be damned if you do; you'll be damned if you don't." He will apparently have every opportunity to practise the resignation that should come from living under such an alternative. A defection of votes, which may roughly be estimated at one hundred, is fairly serious, because many of the Liberals are very shaky in their allegiance to non-sectarian public schools. Meantime, the wonder grows that the alignment on so important an educational measure should be made on issues that have next to nothing to do with the actualities of education.

The French election returns on May 6 may be somewhat affected by revoting next Sunday in *arrondissements* in which there was no choice; but the results indicate that the Ministry has made slight gains. Its estimated majority is 100. A curious habit of the discontented French voter—that of simple abstention from the polls—has prevented the Socialist protest against recent repression from becoming effective. Such abstention in most cases merely cuts down the Ministerial majority or postpones the election of the Government candidate. It is not a practical sort of opposition. The old personages—the Abbé Gayraud and Vicomte de Mun of the Right; Ribot and Bourgeois of the Moderate groups of the Centre; the present Ministers, Jaurès, Doumer, and Delcassé—are all to return to the Chamber. The country has spoken emphatically in favor of the Separation Act, and as clearly stands behind the paternalistic policies of the Sarrien Government. The virulence of Nationalism was spent some time ago, and it is no surprise that Habert and Marchand have failed in the first elections. Even the picturesque Déroulède must try the luck of a second ballot. Clearly, the times are hard for the "League of Patriots" that made such a stir in the piping Dreyfus days. The elections pretty well illustrate the absurdity of turning out Premier Rouvier at the culmination of his Moroccan triumph. All the policies that have prevailed are his, and it is doubly fortunate that Sarrien has much of his predecessor's judicial and conciliatory spirit. Since the "Red" Socialists have made so small a showing, it is probable that the composite Radical-Socialist majority may hold together for several sessions.

The reasons for M. Witte's retirement are still merely inferential, though something may be gathered from the character of his successor. M. Goremykin, some ten years ago, was Minister of the Interior, and made it his chief duty to keep all disagreeable news from the Czar. For such suppression of the truth he was exposed and virtually dismissed by M. Witte. Goremykin's revenge came in 1903, when the reactionary cabal of Plehve drove Witte out of office, only to suffer prompt shipwreck itself between the political uprising at home and the military disasters in the Far East. The new Premier, then, must be regarded as the firm friend of the reactionaries. It is most unfortunate that the Czar is put in an attitude of suspicion towards the Duma at the moment of changing prime ministers, thus playing into the hands of the radicals, and making doubly difficult the task of conciliation and compromise undertaken by the moderate reformers. Witte's sympathy with the new movement was defective, but he was at least an unprejudiced observer of the political situation, and willing to make any needful concession. The accession of Goremykin means, we fear, the opposite.

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REPUBLICAN DANGER SIGNALS.

The announcement that E. Rosewater, editor of the Omaha *Bee*, is a candidate to succeed Millard in the United States Senate is merely a formal acknowledgment of a long-held ambition. It is taken seriously, however, and the Omaha journalist's career as a rabid enemy of the railroads is likely to give him a great advantage over the conservative Millard Whatever Nebraska Republicans may have said about Rosewater in the past as a peevish meddler in politics and an anti-railroad ranter, they must admit now that he comes nearer to representing party sentiment than any one else in the State. And yet, from his own point of view, the Democrats are stronger and more consistent in their opposition to corporate influences, whether in the form of railways or tariff-protected Trusts. As in Nebraska, so it is in Kansas and Minnesota, where in the coming State elections the railroads are to play important parts. The Republican leaders morning and afternoon are being admonished that their only hope lies in stealing Democratic anti-corporation thunder. In such widely separated States as Massachusetts and California the Congressional delegations are preparing to assure their constituents that, while they are strong for tariff revision and are deadly enemies of the Steel Trust, the Speaker is such a tyrannical old fogy that he won't tolerate this "Democratic doctrine" in the House.

The Minneapolis *Journal*, a Republican organ, notes an unusual apathy among the voters of Minnesota concerning the coming gubernatorial election. This apathy, it says, is "unfortunate for the party's prospects." Here is a State that has a normal Republican plurality of 100,000, that has a Democratic Governor, and is apparently not yearning to get back into the Republican fold. The *Journal* explains it in this way: "The army of Republicans who helped to elect Gov. Johnson got a taste of independence, and, unless they feel a personal interest in the Republican nominee this year, they will be hard to hold in line." Gov. Johnson and the Democratic platform, in fact, come nearer to pleasing the voters of Minnesota than any patchwork declaration likely to be put forward by Republicans. What is written of the party leaders in that State—"They recognize the danger, and for the most part are anxious to learn what the voters want, if they can only find out"—is more or less true in other States. The Republicans are trying to adjust their declarations and choose their candidates in accordance with the new demands.

How successfully the party which is commonly regarded as friendly to the hunted corporations has itself turned hunter, remains to be seen. Last week, at the Kansas Republican State convention, the chairman, William Roscoe Stubbs, called upon the party, not only to rescue the State from the grip of the railroads, but also to reach out and grapple with the Steel Trust. That, considering popular temper in Kansas, was good advice, but there is no general belief that it will be taken. The Kansas City *Star* declares that "it will suit the [Republican] machine crowd in Kansas a mighty lot better to see the Democrats capture the State with Harris than it would suit them to see Stubbs succeed in his movement to protect the Government of Kansas against the special interests that have laid out their plans to capture the next Administration at Topeka, with Hoch as its figurehead." William Allen White's paper, the Emporia *Gazette*, put the matter tersely the day before the convention met: "If the Lord doesn't send the Kansas Republicans a Moses, and send him by express prepaid, before to-morrow night, it will be a great day for the Democracy!"

As the conventions and primaries are held in the Congressional districts, this difficulty in bringing "Bourbonized" Republicans around to a successful advocacy of the old Democratic doctrines becomes more evident. We may recall Representative Mudd's promise to work for tariff revision if he is reëlected by the Republicans of the Fifth Maryland District. In Massachusetts, also, the Tariff Reform League, formed among the business men of the State, is sure to have something to say about the make-up of the delegation in the Sixtieth Congress. Ex-Gov. Douglas, who is active in the work of the League, promises the people of the State a change from a system under which "our industries have to pay duty on raw materials or buy them of domestic producers who will sell only at tariff-made prices." Moreover, just how the California delegation is to explain the burial of the Madden resolution to admit free of duty structural steel needed to rebuild San Francisco, we shall be interested to learn.

In the eyes of the standpatters of Iowa, Gov. Cummins is a radical. Some have called him a Populist. But in his campaign for control of the Republicans of the State against George D. Perkins, a Shaw standpatter, he has shown unexpected strength. The Governor's friends point to his success as a warning to the party to rouse itself to the fact that new issues are being raised that have to be met. This year, it must be remembered, there is no Roosevelt to head a national ticket and set a "tidal wave" of Republicanism in motion. In the Congressional districts, and in the score of States that are to choose Governors, the candidates will have to stand on their own merits. If they meet the issues of tariff revision and corporation control less skilfully than the Democrats, there will be some great "rescue" work for the Republican managers in 1908.

"THAT" TARIFF SPEECH.

"I think," said a Republican member of Congress after Mr. John Sharp Williams had concluded his speech of Saturday week, "I may justly congratulate the gentleman upon *that* speech, because in the last seven years that I have been a member of this House each and every time the gentleman has delivered *that* speech, I think I have been able to note a decided improvement. . . ." This sally, of course, elicited the customary "[Laughter.]". Whether it should be a serious reproach to a parliamentary leader to have a speech which, after seven years' use against adroit and resourceful opponents, is still in working order, may be open to question. But while it is true enough that the fundamental arguments against the protective principle and the existing tariff schedules remain substantially as unaltered as the Ten Commandments, nothing is clearer than that a new and abundant collection of illustrative examples and applications to details will be ready for use in this year's Congressional campaign. Particular duties which may have been only a little too high from the standpoint of the logical protectionist in 1897, can now be proved ridiculously unnecessary. The facts regarding the practice of American manufacturers who sell their goods at substantially lower prices abroad than at home, of which the Democrats found it so difficult to secure the categorical proof they wanted in the last off-year campaign, are now hardly to be disputed. If the speeches of Mr. Williams and other Democrats are to be taken as the "keynotes" which we expect about this time in the even-numbered years, the tariff discussion will be, of all things, concrete, and concerned with conditions as they are to-day.

The leading case, thus far, seems to be that of the reimported American watches sold on lower Broadway at prices below what other retailers were permitted to charge. After Mr. Rainey of Illinois had given the details of the transaction, including the story of the detention of 2,300 American watches in the custom-house on the plea that they had been "increased in value" abroad by the addition of Swiss dials costing 4 cents each, his Republican colleague, Mr. Boutell, made a speech in answer. By extensive use of affidavits, he undertook to show that certain of the watches offered on "lower Broadway" were not bargains, while others were of varieties of which the factory records showed that practically none had ever been bought "for export." Mr. Williams's reply, however, went directly to the heart of the matter. "The first fact is," he said, "that there were a lot of these

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watches sent over to England, and a lot more of these watches were later contracted to be sent over to England, and the watches were not delivered; and when suit was brought to enforce delivery, the plea of the defence was that a man had bought the watches *to sell in France*, and that they, the defendants, had found out he wanted them really to sell in the United States. Horrible duplicity!"

This rejoinder by the minority leader itself brought out a fact hitherto unnoted in the discussion:

"Mr. Rainey—Mr. Chairman, I should like to state that I neglected to say the other day in my argument that this suit was settled. It did not go to a conclusion. The Keystone company paid on behalf of the Elgin company and themselves £500 rather than keep this contract.

"Mr. Williams—Yes; rather than keep this contract or continue their own suit, they paid £500—$2,500—and why? Oh, 'gentle shepherd, tell me why.' [Applause on the Democratic side.] Suppose I sell 300 bales of cotton to a man in Liverpool, and he tells me he wants to make goods out of it in England and send the goods to Bombay. I then find out afterwards, lo and behold! that he wants to ship the goods back to Charleston; that he finds it profitable to himself to do so. I should be arrested as a roving lunatic if I made any objection, because I am nothing but a cotton planter. . . . There was an interest somewhere involved in keeping up one price in the American market, regardless of the profit to the purchaser in other markets."

Now the conditions which may or may not prevail in the watch trade make relatively very little difference in the cost of living. Watches compose about one-twentieth of one per cent. of the product of our manufactures, a little more than flavoring extracts or matches, a little less than paper-bags or buttons. But if the same line of demonstration is extended to more and more important products, there is bound to come a critical time when it will no longer be possible from the sincere protectionist standpoint to make even a plausible defence of the tariff as it is. "I am wondering and sometimes dreaming," said Mr. Williams near his peroration, "what will happen to the gentleman from Iowa [Mr. Hepburn], the gentleman from Pennsylvania [Mr. Dalzell], the gentleman from New York [Mr. Payne], and the gentleman from Indiana [Mr. Charles B. Landis], and all the other leaders of the cohorts of 'standpattism,' when, toward the tail end of this session or during the next session of this Congress, the man in the White House—who carried your party to victory, rather than the party carried him—shall send a message to this House to revise and reduce the tariff! It is in the air that he wanted to do it before this. . . . Let me tell you something: You have got to revise this tariff. If you don't, we will. Because our common masters, the people of America, have made up their minds that it shall be revised."

THE STAMPING OUT OF PEONAGE.

The recent pardon by President Roosevelt of John W. Pace of Tallapoosa County, Ala., the chief offender in the Southern peonage cases uncovered by the authorities some three years ago, furnishes occasion for reviewing the results actually secured from the remarkable series of prosecutions then begun under a law of which some offenders had never even heard, and which had been passed to prevent a dissimilar practice in a far-distant part of the country. Pace, the so-called "father of peonage," made his defence substantially on the ground that, whatever might be the methods of obtaining compulsory labor from negro criminals, the word "peon" had never been current in Alabama, and that the local practices bore no relationship to the Mexican institution of peonage which the Federal statutes had long ago made a crime in order to keep it out of Arizona and New Mexico.

The change in Southern sentiment which has come about since the first denunciations of "Federal interference," may be shown by the statement of Judge Jones, himself a Southern man, who, after leading the unpopular fight against peonage in the State, and severely reprimanding a jury which had refused to convict in his court, joined in the recommendation of clemency for Pace, who was practically a dying man at the time of his sentence. "Public sentiment," said the judge, as quoted by a correspondent of the Boston *Transcript*, "temporarily misled at the outset, came to the support of the authorities, by outspoken approval of the prosecutions, as soon as the conditions which called for the enforcement of the law became known. The State press, the pulpit, the bar, and good citizens in all walks of life built up an aggressive public sentiment which, in a few weeks, crystallized into an earnest determination to prevent any future violations of the law. The sentiment thus aroused has continued in unbroken force, and there is not now a State in the Union where violations of this law are less likely to occur than in Alabama, and especially in Tallapoosa County, where Pace lives and whose people now ask his pardon."

The transplanted peonage system, this "new slavery," like all such elaborate systems of crime or oppression, was not a sudden invention; but a growth. It is even said by some that it grew out of the benevolent practice of the white men who would volunteer to pay the fines of negroes convicted of minor crimes, and thus get them out of jail. The next step was to assure, by physical restraint, the working out of the debts thus incurred. Lastly came the cooperation of justices, constables, and other officials in providing a supply of this forced labor. As the *Transcript* correspondent remarks, some of the whites had not outgrown "the idea that in some way they were entitled to the labor of the negro, and were justified in getting it at as small an outlay as possible." Planters even agreed to take the entire output of criminals from some minor rural courts. The laws of most States define a good many petty crimes which practically are never heard of. In Alabama, negroes were taken up in numbers for such offences as "swearing before females," shooting across a public road, carrying razors, stealing a ride on the train, letting a master's mule bite some other man's corn, and the like. Then it was a question of going to jail or working out the fine, which some interested white man stood ready to pay if the convicted person would "touch the pen" to a contract that was practically a consent to slavery.

While the cases in the Alabama back counties were the first to attract national attention, the test case in which the United States Supreme Court a year ago affirmed the application of the old peonage law to the Southern forcing of negro labor, was brought in Georgia. This was a case in which two negroes were brought from Florida to work for a turpentine manufacturer on alleged debts of $8 and $13 respectively, which the employer was perfectly willing to pay for them. On the decision in that case, as Attorney-General Moody said in his brief, hung "the liberty of thousands of persons . . . who are now being held in a condition of involuntary servitude, in many cases worse than slavery itself, by unlawful acts of individuals." As soon as the Supreme Court decided this Georgia case, Pace, in Alabama, admitted his guilt on all the eleven charges in his indictment of two years previous; and the hundred or more of similar prosecutions which the Government had begun in various parts of the South must have been greatly aided. Among these were some cases of white men, Italians, who were forced to labor in a phosphate mine in South Carolina. This instance furnishes another illustration of the old truth that, when unjust repressive measures have been applied to the negro, the white man himself is, on occasion, in danger of the same treatment.

CONSULS AND THE SENATE.

In spite of the Executive orders providing examinations, a man's chances of being appointed to the consular service unless he can get at least one Senator to work actively in his behalf, are in almost all cases slim indeed—how very small, regardless of the number or quality of disinterested recommendations from citizens not within the charmed circle of the Senate, the general public has little idea. This is especially true of the *best* posts of the consular service, for which the most influential Senators

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are sure to apply. And again, the chances of promotion for a man already in the service, unless he has powerful and very active Senatorial and political backing at Washington, are likewise very slim. A great many promotions from lower to higher consulates have been made in the past few years; our pleasure in the fact is dulled if, on inquiry into the individual cases, it is discovered that in almost all of them the men promoted had this very sort of active political backing (as well as, in very many cases at least, a good record).

This is the natural result of the system which has grown up among us of so interpreting the phrase "by and with the consent of the Senate" as virtually to constitute the Senators referees of Federal appointments within their States. Now there is a seeming justification for this practice in the case of Federal offices, such as those of the revenue service, which lie within the territory of the several States, and the duties of which have to do chiefly or wholly with the citizens of a particular State in any given case. But what applicability has this rule of practice to offices abroad, of which the duties have no special concern with the citizens of any particular State of our Union, but are performed for the nation itself and, in a representative capacity, before the citizens and sometimes the governments of foreign countries? Why should the cry be raised that this or that State has a "claim" upon a given consular office, and, when one of its citizens withdraws, that its Senators should have the privilege of naming another for the place? Of course, a consular post abroad "belongs" to the nation as a whole, not to any particular State, but the practice has grown up of letting one State's Senators continue to name, year after year, the incumbents of a particular consular post, partly on the theory of an equitable distribution of these favors, and partly because it is thus made possible for the President to avoid some of the pressure exerted upon him by erecting against the Senators of one State the barrier of a "claim" to a vacancy by the Senators of another State. The practice has never been recognized as a fixed rule, by either Presidents or Senators, but it has gained considerable sanctity as usage; and among the more influential Senators "Senatorial courtesy" in a considerable degree prevails in this particular, keeping them off each other's "preserves."

The theory of "equitable distribution" certainly does not seem to work well in practice. There have been, until the slight reorganization brought about by the new law, 274 consular offices whose principals receive salaries and are not allowed to engage in business (except at Auckland and Vladivostok). Of these 274 principal officers (9 of the offices being vacant in the last official list), 72 were appointed from the four Middle States of New York, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, and West Virginia, as compared with 94 from that immense "yeomen's empire," the heart of our country, denominated the Middle West, and stretching from the Rockies to the Alleghenies between Canada and the Ohio River (including Missouri and Kansas). More striking as a comparison, though it will surprise no one who knows how consular appointments are made and reflects that the Republican party has been in power since 1897, there are 47 of these salaried officers from New England as against only 9 from the South (excluding Maryland, Kentucky, and Missouri). Little West Virginia, with Elkins and Scott for Senators, has 6 posts, with an average salary of over $2,500, while the old commonwealth of Virginia supplies one man, and for a $1,500 post at Guadalupe, W. I. The States of Alabama, Arkansas, Georgia, Mississippi, and South Carolina are not represented at all. The Rocky Mountain States have but 8 of these principal salaried officers, nearly all from the two Dakotas, while Connecticut alone has 9, only one of whom is in a post paying less than $2,000. The entire Pacific Coast has but 4, the same number as little Rhode Island with its Senator Aldrich. New Hampshire has 6 and Vermont 5, and the latter State holds two of the best posts in the service. No one will deny the capacity of Massachusetts to furnish good men for the service, but, as one looks over the list of her 16 officers with an average salary of $2,275 (more men, and a better salary average, than all the consuls taken together from the States which have lately gone Democratic in the Presidential election), he is inclined to question their having been appointed solely because of merit.

Five States, with 33 per cent. of the total population, have 44 per cent. of these offices. These are New York, with 38 offices; Ohio, 29; Pennsylvania, 19; Illinois, 17; and Massachusetts, 16—States which had in the census of 1900 a total population of 25,355,450. The comparison with the sections of the country which are more barren in their production of consuls grows more striking if we add Indiana with 10 offices, Iowa and New Jersey with 9 each, West Virginia and New Hampshire with 6 each, Vermont with 5, and Rhode Island with 4; then twelve States having 44.6 per cent. of the population are found to have furnished 61 per cent. of the consuls sent abroad. But the personal influence of the Senators themselves enters into the equation, too, and there are other interesting indications of how partisan considerations have often governed. One is not surprised to learn, such is the tradition about their office-seeking qualities, that the Ohioans have "landed" one consular post for every 143,000 of their citizens, while New York has to be content with one per 191,000. These two States have been equally successful in picking higher posts, so that the average salary for Ohio and New York consuls is brought up to $2,375. Pennsylvania has managed to get only one consul for every 332,000 citizens, but her Senators have been nicely discriminating, and have so effectively gone for the good posts that their men's salaries average almost $2,600. The West Virginia Senators have had the same success in getting the higher-salaried places. Ohio has, it will be observed from the above figures, beaten Illinois almost as badly as she has Pennsylvania in the race for number of places. Iowa seems strangely modest with 9 posts, but their average salary is above $2,700. Indiana, which has been a doubtful State, does still better, with an average of $2,900 for her 10 posts. Michigan has been unfailingly loyal to the G. O. P., and has as her reward only 7 places, with a salary average of less than $1,800, not holding a single office of any importance. One wonders if possession of an influential Senator, or if party contests, give Wisconsin, less populous than Michigan, several of the best plums in the service and an average of $2,700 for her 8 officers. Poor unduly partisan Michigan has not even her *per capita* average of consuls as compared with the country as a whole, and makes a sorry showing in this political contest by the side of little Connecticut and West Virginia.

It is true that there are men accredited to particular States in whose appointment political considerations played little or no part, but they do not form any considerable proportion of the list analyzed above. It is true, also, that, among the consuls, quite a number are not credited to any particular State at all, but were appointed from a residence in the District of Columbia, often being newspaper men or men who had demonstrated capacity in the public service. Still, not a few of the District of Columbia residents are really "Senators' men" or men who had "acquired merit" by labors for the party organization.

The fact is, and no law will alter it, that the whole question of consular reform rests primarily with the President. Appointments and promotions are in his hands, under the Constitution, and he has had, and has, the power to effect the most thorough-going reform of the service without a line being written into the statutes. We insist that, while nomination may not become appointment until the advice and consent of the Senate is had upon it, neither the Constitution nor public opinion requires that this advice and consent, extended in the first instance solely by individual Senators and resting upon "Senatorial cour-

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tesy" for the acquiescence therein of the whole body, shall, with regard to all appointments at least, *precede* the nomination of a given man. As regards consuls, there are many special reasons why this previous consultation should not be recognized as at all a rule; but no President has yet challenged the usage which makes it a rule.

CARACAS ON THE DAY OF THE INDEPENDENCIA.

CARACAS, April 19, 1906.

A turn of traveller's good fortune has brought me to the Venezuelan capital on the day which commemorates the founding of the republic. April 19, to use the words of the *Constitucional* of this morning, is *dia santo entre los dias del mundo*, and the municipal council has decreed its observance *con toda solemnidad* and in a manner befitting the traditions of a liberty-loving people. The "Proclamation of Caracas" and the field of Ayacucho are to be burned into history in a blaze of illumination, and the Plaza Bolívar will be fairy-land shortly after the setting of the sun. President Castro, having temporarily relinquished the cares of state to his lieutenant, Gómez, has withdrawn in seclusion to his favorite Los Teques, going to the railway station, as one of the journals remarks, unattended by either soldiery or servants, buying his own ticket, and taking a seat in the railway coach in the manner of his own loyal subjects.

The day is in itself sufficiently dreary. There is a fair exhibition of the brilliant Venezuelan bunting, but, apart from this and the stringers of colored globes and lanterns that have been drawn across the Plaza Bolívar, there is little to show that anything is being celebrated. A scattering of Venezolanos may be seen wandering about the Salón Elíptico of the national capitol, gazing wondrously at its vast ceiling-painting of booming cannon or into the framed *Acta de la Independencia* and the *proclama* of the "Paladín de los Andes" of December 9, 1902; but there is no display of military in the streets, and no martial music falls upon the ear. The deserted national palace of "Miraflores" looks silently over the dusty plain that runs out to the lofty Silla de Caracas, but its walls carry no decoration of any kind, and its extensive chambers are as silent as are the halls of the University. There are no student demonstrations and no processions of religious orders. In the cathedral a single devout spirit was seen to move about the illumined interior; and, in the national pantheon at the time of my visit, no native gazed upon the gilt sarcophagus that covers the remains of the illustrious Bolívar. This is Caracas shortly before the hour of noon on its Independence Day—untidy and unkempt, with a sufficiently large representation of the sterner sex occupying its dusty street-ways and narrow sidewalks, but with nothing beyond its own mountain sunshine to impart joyousness to a festive occasion. The city is undemonstrative and unsympathetic, making its strongest appeal, perhaps, to the turkey buzzards that wheel in great circles overhead.

The air may be full of rumors, but the stranger hears little of them. The nation is assumed to have emerged triumphantly from its latest foreign complication, and the journals are loud in extolling the virtues of the "Restaurador," and give free space to the publication of panegyrics extracted from other sections of the South American press. It may be that from this success has grown a spirit of magnanimity which has helped to remove some of the restrictions that have been imposed upon the stranger visiting the country. I had been told, on what appeared to be good authority, that as a traveller *in transitu* it would be impossible for me to obtain at this time the required permit to visit the capital city, and that I should even be barred the soil of La Guaira. This was everyday experience; it touched everybody of low and high degree alike, and there was no reason to hope for anything different. But the unexpected happened. My personal card, after a moment's introduction and without the formality of the presentation of a passport (which I lacked), brought out a prompt permit from the genial prefect of police, and before nine o'clock I was speeding up the remarkable railway which zigzags the wall of the outer Andes. La Guaira lay below me and a heavy bank of clouds above.

One formality, unique in my experience of travelling, has to be complied with before the passenger is permitted to take a seat in the railway coach: his name must be inscribed in the conductor's memorandum-book. A request for this inscription, however wanting in legibility it may be, is made three times in the course of the journey between La Guaira and Caracas. The attack upon the mountain buttress of the coast is daring in the extreme, and the traveller is charmed and bewildered by the abrupt views of mountain and ocean which the numerous turns and twists disclose. There are no such grandly inspiring views as one obtains from the Boca del Monte or across Maltrata and the gorge of the Infiernillo on the line connecting the City of Mexico with Vera Cruz; but where Nature asserts herself so forcibly as she does here it is perhaps unnecessary to seek for comparisons. There is enough to keep the traveller occupied. The mountain slopes are at this season of the year largely bared, and stand out to particular advantage in their brilliant coloring of reds and grays; but a few weeks hence the naked branches of the small trees and bushes which, with numerous acacias and a few palms, form their scattering vegetation, will be clothed with verdure, and a soft green, except where rugged crags intrude upon the flowing contours, will rise to the sky-line. The road traverses no forest, and there are but few patches of woodland to suggest the glories of the tropics.

My first impression of Caracas, which we reached after a journey of somewhat more than two hours, was a disappointing one, and this impression did not wear off. I had hoped, even in the present condition of the nation's unrest, to see a city of stately pretence, cared for in a way so as at least remotely to suggest that it may at one time have justified a claim to being considered one of the most attractive cities of the western world. The "Little Paris in the Andes," indeed, sounds very fine, and is well adapted for use in steamship folders; but, alas, how little is there to warrant this designation! There are many cities in the outer world that are or have been likened to Paris, but a goodly proportion of these have no more right to such a comparison than has Caracas, and some of them less. A few fine shops that surprise the stranger by their presence, at rather remote intervals, in the Venezuelan capital, are sufficient to suggest Paris; at other times it may be the sight alone of smartly groomed persons or of stately equipages, with or without a supporting background. The good Père Labat, who visited Barbados in the early part of the eighteenth century, speaks of the jewellers' and silversmiths' shops of Bridgetown as having the brilliancy of those of the Paris boulevards, and many Barbadians of to-day seem to believe in the continued existence of this similarity; but a historian so partial to almost everything British (except political conditions) in the West Indies as was Froude, and who, in place of this assumed Parisian splendor, saw "only *stores* on the American pattern, for the most part American goods, bad in quality and extravagantly dear," could not discover it. The spirit of this characterization might, indeed, almost be applied to the Venezuelan capital.

True, the city is not wholly devoid of stately buildings, and the square containing the famous equestrian statue of Bolívar might by some be considered to breathe an air of subdued grandeur; but there are no avenues to open up receding vistas, nothing to give perspective to the ill-sorted walls of stucco which bound the thoroughfares and give store-fronts of varied degrees of unattractiveness and color. Even the principal hotels are barely distinguishable by external characters. Some of the side streets, indeed, recall to mind the streets of Córdova, in Spain, and one hopes among the interior courts to obtain glimpses of the house-gardens of Seville; but the eye searches in vain for the flower-draped balconies, in vain for those bits of grilled scenery which are the sunshine of the Andalusian home. Dirt-heaps and dirt stare at one plentifully, but some say that this is a newly acquired characteristic. To have seen Caracas in the days of Blanco! This city, like most cities nowadays, is illumined by electric light, but it has not yet risen to the dignity of having electric tram cars. The mule-tram does its service as of old, and the type of construction adhered to is, I believe, the most primitive to be found anywhere, with the exception of that of Willemstad, the "spotless town" of the island of Curaçao.

I made my way over to the leading hotel, and was agreeably surprised to find that its promise of cleanliness and good attention was fully carried out. Cleanliness is certainly not a virtue of Venezuelan hostelries generally. A small drum-and-cornet corps came and placed itself in the vestibule and broke out into a dreary military reveille. There was a momentary flurry among those near by, for, *quien sabe?* something might be afoot. But assurance was given that the "call" had no significance, and what little life had suddenly been brought upon the scene made a rapid exit. Caracas has an efficient carriage service, and one may still enjoy long rides in and about town, and in good fiacres, for the

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payment of a few *bolivares* (francs); but where, one asks one's self, are the places that should attract for such drives? Humboldt, in his 'Essai Politique sur la Nouvelle Espagne,' refers to Mexico as one of the most attractive cities in the world, and likens it to Philadelphia; and elsewhere, in a comparative study, he describes the site and beauty of Caracas. One may without much violence to his conscience concede to the modern Mexico this characterization of the illustrious traveller; but between Caracas and the Mexican capital there is a vast gulf. Time has widened it, and its borders are being removed further and further every day. In the one city progress and modernization are apparent everywhere; in the other, the eye sees hardly more than somnolence and decay.

ANGELO HEILPRIN.

Notes.

Macmillan Co. will shortly put forth the first of four volumes of 'The Cyclopædia of American Agriculture,' edited by Prof. L. H. Bailey of Cornell, and 'From the Cotton Field to the Cotton Mill: A Study of the Industrial Transition in North Carolina,' by J. Holland Thompson.

Dr. William Shaw's book on the 'Knights of England,' from the earliest times to the year 1904, will be printed and published immediately in two volumes for the Central Chancery of the Orders of Knighthood by Sherratt & Hughes, 60 Chandos Street, London, W. C. The want of an authentic register of English knighthood has long been felt. That it has not been met hitherto, has been owing partly to the difficulty of compilation, such records as have been available being notoriously confused and contradictory; and partly to the fact that the ultimate sources for large portions of the subject-matter have been jealously withheld. These obstacles have now been completely removed. Dr. Shaw has been granted access to each and every collection of official historical sources relating to Knights Bachelors and to the Orders of British Knighthood, the Garter, the Thistle, the Bath, the Star of India, etc. With his work is incorporated a list of Knights Bachelors dubbed in Ireland, compiled from the records in Dublin Castle by Mr. G. B. D. Burtchaell of the Office of Arms.

The late Augustus Hare's guide-books seem to hold their own, and the little volume for Sicily, brought up to date by St. Clair Baddeley, has been reissued by E. P. Dutton & Co., with illustrations, and an excellent map of the island, engraved under the direction of Heinrich Kiepert. The volume is of a convenient size and shape.

The taking little "New Pocket Library" of John Lane Co. proceeds with Trollope's 'The Small House at Allington,' in two volumes. Algar Thorold's brief introduction is but a bird's-eye view of the characters in the story.

The five-volume reprint of Swinburne's Tragedies (Harper's) is more showy than elegant. The blue binding is tasteful, but the print and paper are undistinguished—unless the want of sheen in the latter be a mark of distinction; it is certainly commendable. The letter-press, however, is very clear, and this is another virtue.

Ginn & Co. have brought out an abridged edition, in one volume, of Prof. J. H. Robinson's 'Readings in European History' (extracts from sources), originally in two volumes, as our readers will remember. The unavoidable method of reduction has been followed—by omission, cutting down (but sparingly), and a giving up of the more advanced bibliographical references.

A second edition of Mr. Aksel G. S. Josephson's 'Bibliography of Union Lists of Serials' issues from the John Crerar Library of Chicago. It has been both enlarged and rearranged—this time geographically, as is most fitting. There is an index, and a chronological table specifying the class of serials included in the joint list of the several library groups.

The appearance of 'The True Andrew Jackson,' by Cyrus Townsend Brady (Lippincott), enables us to congratulate the publishers on having presented to the public at least seven "true" biographies. A perusal of this volume leads one to the conclusion that there is, after all, something in a name; the series by another name would assuredly not sell so well. Mr. Brady's estimate of Jackson is, on the whole, fair enough; but if a true biography implies nothing more than his achievement leads us to suppose, there is no reason why the list should not be indefinitely and rapidly extended, the main requisites in the author being admiration for the subject, reasonable judgment, a pair of shears, and a complaisant disregard of any demand on the part of the reader for finished literary workmanship. Mr. Brady's 'Andrew Jackson' must rank neither as biography nor as history, but rather as a book simply—a book, the existence of which is justified, if at all, by the divine right of authors to write and of publishers to publish.

A handy little book is 'Elocution: Its First Principles,' by W. H. Breare (Putnams). The author talks familiarly, with much good sense, and gives advice as to breathing, demeanor, and the like. He does not lay down rules, but proffers advice. One who announces it as a fundamental principle that "the art of teaching is making the pupil do the right thing unconsciously," is on the right track; and the modest, well-printed volume which Mr. Breare submits will be found helpful to young men who aim to succeed as public speakers.

The sixth volume of newspaper extracts, being vol. xxv. of the 'Documents Relating to the Colonial History of the State of New Jersey,' edited by William Nelson, preserves much interesting material of the date of 1767-68. When Lazarus Pine, of Philadelphia, wants to sell a young, healthy negro wench, he mentions, as adding to her value, the fact that she "has had the small-pox and measles." It is rather late in the day to expect to overhaul James Morris and get thirty shillings therefor. James ran away from Change-water-forge, in Sussex County, in May, 1767. One way in which it becomes easy to recognize him is from the peculiar circumstance that "he has a pearl on one of his eyes, and a remarkable long nose, speaks good English, but seems always as if he had a cold." The volume has a full index of names.

There are many signs that the various churches in England are waking up to the need of improvement in the provision they themselves make for religious education. One of the most notable is the appearance of such a book as 'Reform in Sunday-School Teaching' (London: J. Clarke & Co.), by so distinguished a scholar as Mr. A. S. Peake, professor of Biblical Exegesis and dean of the faculty of Theology in the University of Manchester. The first half of the volume is occupied by a discussion of the scheme of study provided by the International Lessons Committee, which Professor Peake condemns as "educationally disastrous." As the work of this committee is, in origin and influence, as much American as English, it may be hoped that these careful criticisms will be widely read in this country. They are followed by a few chapters of valuable constructive suggestion for teachers and superintendents.

'A Bodleian Manuscript' of five of the minor poems ascribed to Virgil is the title of a paper lately read at Corpus Christi College by Prof. Robinson Ellis and now published in a small pamphlet (Henry Frowde). The manuscript is of no particular importance for the text of the poems themselves, but it has considerable interest on account of the numerous explanatory glosses, written in Latin, French, and a few in Early English. Professor Ellis treats these as in type fairly representative of mediæval commentaries on Latin poems, and, as such, subjects them to rather minute investigation in his usual thorough and learned manner.

Naval manuals are apt to be little more than collections of statistics, and opinions based on mere figures little better than paper judgments. Howard of Effingham, and Tegethoff, and Togo have demonstrated that an equal or even inferior force may, in defiance of figures, annihilate an opponent. It is the chief merit of Captain Abeille's 'Marine Française et Marines Étrangères (Paris: Armand Colin) that it recognizes this fact. Although he examines, figures in hand, all the great navies of the world, comparing them with that of his own country, he is never the victim of his figures, but sees beyond them those broad currents that count for even more. He has much that is suggestive to say on the relations between the economic, strategic, and naval situations of France, England, Germany, and the United States. He relates these questions to present-day tendencies in international law, and discusses their bearing in connection with the approaching Hague Conference. The book is a good one, and, although primarily intended as an appeal for the reform of the French navy, contains matter that should not be missed by students of international relations.

While waiting for the definitive census to be taken at the end of each decade, the Bureau of Statistics of the Imperial Cabinet of Japan sends forth two folio publications (pp. 303, 357) with introductions and letter-press in French accompanying the Arabic and Japanese figures. One of the monographs treats of the Movement of Population in the Empire of Japan in 1902, and the other of the State of Population in 1902. The brief text calls attention to the diversity of systems of record prevalent before 1868

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in the various feudal fiefs, and to the unity that now prevails and makes accurate and exhaustive record possible. Four sorts of declarations are required of those who change their locality—of temporary emigration or immigration and of permanent departure or reëntrance. The legal and the resident population are carefully distinguished, the latter numbering, in 1903, 48,500,000 souls, or, in detail, 5,053 nobles, 2,168,058 gentry (old *samurai*), and 46,732,138 *heimin*, or commoners. In the second brochure, the vital statistics of births, marriage, diseases, and death, are minute and accurate, furnishing excellent data for the study of disease and health on a national scale. The figures concerning beri-beri, smallpox, etc., show marked contrast by diminution with those of previous years. These annual publications reflect high credit on the veteran Director, N. Hanabusa.

Mr. Carnegie's rectorial address at the University of St. Andrews, delivered last October, finds publication in America through the columns of the May *Popular Science Monthly*. The address is a remarkably vigorous and sensible plea for international peace as against "the foulest blot that has ever disgraced the earth, the killing of civilized men by men, like wild beasts, as a permissible mode of settling international disputes." The speaker enumerates the many mitigations of the evils of war adopted during recent decades, but sees a lamentable step in the opposite direction in the comparatively new idea that one nation may allowably strike another in the midst of negotiations, without waiting for any formal declaration of war. This new method, he says, "belongs to the infernal armory of assassins hired to kill or poison opposing generals, of forged dispatches, poisoned wells, agreements made to be broken, and all those diabolic weapons which for very shame men have been forced to abandon as too infamous even for the trade of man-slaying." In the difficulty of obtaining recruits, experienced in both England and America, he finds a very encouraging mark of progress, indicating "the influence of education upon the masses in evolving clearer ideas of responsibility for their actions." From John Jay he quotes the sentiment that "Our country, right or wrong" is "rebellion against God, and treason to the cause of civil and religious liberty, of justice and humanity."

"Peter Schoeffer at Work" is the title of an article contributed by Mr. Alfred W. Pollard to the latest number of the *Book-Lover's Magazine*. It is an attempt—and a successful and very interesting attempt—to show in a narrative form how it happened that so many curious discrepancies are to be found in copies of apparently the same editions of books from the earliest printing-presses. The British Museum possesses four copies of Schoeffer's edition, of 1471, of Valerius Maximus, three of which agree throughout, while the fourth shows, on a number of pages scattered through the book, several variations, in themselves insignificant, but proof that the type has been changed. By examining and comparing these four books, Mr. Pollard has found that the size of the edition must have been increased while the printing of the book was still in progress but after part of the type had already been distributed; further, that at the same time Schoeffer introduced a new kind of comma, slightly differing from the one he had hitherto been using. Mr. Pollard also discovers that not less than six presses were used simultaneously in printing the book, and that only one page was printed at a time, while in 1474, when Schoeffer printed an edition of Turrecremata's 'Exposition of the Psalms,' he had facilities for printing two pages at a time. The story of Peter Schoeffer in his printing-office is introduced by some remarks about the claims in favor of Schoeffer as the inventor of printing; but they lead nowhere.

Dr. Paul Trommsdorff, who, by the way, is travelling at present in this country in order to gain some personal familiarity with American library methods, contributes to the March number of the *Zeitschrift für Bücherfreunde* an interesting article describing the work of the Bureau of Information for German Libraries in Berlin. From its opening in April of last year up to the end of 1905 the Bureau received inquiries as to the whereabouts of 2,270 works, in regard to 1,330 of which it was able to transmit the desired information. Nearly 500 of the books inquired about were found to be in the Royal Library in Berlin, and 300 in one or other of the eleven university libraries in Prussia. Of books not found in any of these libraries, printed lists are issued from time to time and sent to all the libraries that coöperate through the Bureau. Dr. Trommsdorff gives the titles of a number of books of which not more than a single copy could be found. Among these *unica* we notice the *Athenæum* for 1831, the *Century* for 1892-93, *World's Work* for 1903, George Paston's (Miss E. M. Symond's) 'Little Memories of the Eighteenth Century' (New York, 1901), and Mr. Copper Curtice's 'Animal Parasites of Sheep,' published in 1890 by the United States Department of Agriculture. While the majority of the books about which information was sought were philological or historical, or of particular interest to the bibliophile or antiquarian, a large number of scientific and technical works, especially periodicals, were put in the hands of students through the medium of the Bureau. That the services which the Bureau renders the world of learning are duly appreciated, has been shown by the fact that the number of inquiries is steadily growing, and that in many cases a casual inquiry has led to a quite regular correspondence.

The Imperial Library in Tokio, having outgrown the brick building erected in 1889, is to be housed in a new edifice of modern style, in steel and stone, after the American method of construction. The illustrated pamphlet just issued shows the noble proportions of the final structure in Uyeno Park; it is to cover 5,760 square feet, and to be seven stories in height. The finished portion, covering 1,290 square feet, is imposing in outward form, and is inwardly arranged and equipped according to the best ideas of modern library economy. Besides the principal hall for readers, there are reception and office rooms, and abundant provision for the work of cataloguers, for special researchers and women students. One-third of the building is occupied by the stacks, seven feet high, to which the users of books are allowed to go directly. The finishing of the halls with fine woods, carpets, desks, chairs, and in Doric, Ionic, and Corinthian styles of columns and pilasters, with electric lights, steam heat, steel shelves and supports, elevator, etc., is on a par with the best in Europe and America. A general library law passed by the Diet gives encouragement to the formation of other libraries, and this collection of 444,646 volumes is both nourishment and stimulus. The artistic decoration has been done by the Tokio Art School.

In view of the fact that missionaries in China are so frequently accused of being the cause of uprisings against foreigners, an interview between the Chinese commissioners and representatives of eighteen different Protestant English missionary societies in London on April 7 is important. Sir T. Fowell Buxton presented an illuminated address, of which the object was to impress upon the commissioners the true motives and aims of the societies, so that they might on their return use their influence to dissipate misunderstandings in regard to them. They had no political or commercial interests, and they "expressly direct their missionaries not to interfere with the internal politics of China, carefully to respect the administration of civil law, and not to seek the conferment of social *status* for themselves or extra-territorial privilege for their converts. The missionaries have deplored and opposed all action which has fostered the spread of the opium habit, and all things which have been prejudicial to the best interests of China." The address closed with a grateful acknowledgment of the kindness and courtesy of many high officials, and especially of invaluable services rendered during the Boxer disturbances. Duke Tsai-tse said in response that the interview to him was "a sign that the whole British nation is well disposed towards my country, and I can assure you that this good feeling is reciprocated on our side."

Capt. R. F. Scott, commander of the National Antarctic Expedition, was presented with the gold medal of the American Geographical Society at the April meeting of the Royal Geographical Society. In his presentation address our ambassador, Mr. Whitelaw Reid, spoke of the interest which America had always taken in Polar research and had shown especially in two Arctic expeditions; but, judging from the report in the London *Times*, he made no reference to the fact that one of the most successful Antarctic expeditions was that of Wilkes. In concluding, he said that those whom he represented would not be the young, daring people they were, if they did not take a special pleasure in the fact that this expedition was led by a man who was barely thirty years of age when the work was assigned to him. Capt. Scott expressed his appreciation of the gift, saying that his cup was brimming over with American honors, for it was the second time an American geographical society had awarded him a gold medal.

The treasurer of the Nobel foundation reports that the five prizes at the next distribution will amount to 138,536 kroner each, or an average increase of 453 kroner beyond the sums distributed last year. This is significant in view of the fact that the steady decrease in recent years had called forth considerable criticism in reference to the management of the funds.

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—Richard Mansfield opens the May *Atlantic* with a paper on "Man and the Actor." He adds his voice to that of those who would have a National Theatre, free from the bad effects of the ordinary necessity for commercial profit, but it must be no scheme devised by a few individuals in behalf of some social or literary fad. As one of the accessories of such a theatre he suggests a board of literary directors, "composed of such men as William Winter, Howells, Edward Everett Hale, and Aldrich, and others equally fine, and the presidents of the great universities," to determine how the "American language" should be spoken in this theatre, and thus give an authoritative standard to people at large on debatable points of usage. Cannot some one persuade our eager spelling-reformers to simplify their task by waiting until this is done? Readers of President Roosevelt's recent book will remember its warm introductory tribute to John Burroughs. In an article on his camping trip with the President, the naturalist leaves no stone unturned to emphasize the fact that the admiration is mutual. The best of the story is in some of its amusing incidents of the President's career, such as an appeal from a Rough Rider in trouble for shooting a lady in the eye: "I didn't intend to hit the lady; I was shooting at my wife." Richard Washburn Child writes of the "Critic and the Law," but fails to draw any definite and intelligible limit beyond which the critic may not safely tread, for the very good reason that neither legislatures nor courts have as yet worked out any limit capable of definite statement. It is easy to say that criticism must confine itself to that which is of public interest, must be fair, and must represent the honest opinion of the critic, but, in spite of decisions which may be cited to that effect, one must not lose sight of the fact that critics may transgress upon matters of purely personal interest, may be grossly unfair and evidently insincere, and yet subject themselves to so little chance of successful prosecution as to make efforts in that direction practically useless. Just how far freedom *should* go in this direction is a problem; that it *does* go too far and fast for the halting gait of legal authorities to keep up, is a fact.

—*Scribner's* puts to the front this month a paper on vanishing Indian types, by E. S. Curtis, to which those who know anything of Mr. Curtis's work will turn at once for its reproductions of his famous Indian photographs. The text, however, is not to be slighted. Mr. Curtis succeeded because he learned the Indian as thoroughly as he learned his camera, and what he has to say of the Apaches and Navajos is of value on its own account. However true it is that the camera cannot rank with the brush in the realm of art, still one cannot compare Mr. Curtis's Indian faces with ordinary photographs and not realize that photography in the hands of really intelligent votaries can escape its usual narrow mechanical limits and occupy a wide and important field. In this connection we may mention the discussion of color prints by Russell Sturgis, in the "Field of Art," illustrated by a frontispiece reproduction from a color-printed etching by George Senseney, entitled "Moonrise." The second paper of the "Railways of the Future" series is by Sir Percy Girouard, and treats of the railways of Africa. The author is not immediately interested in such ideals as the "Cape to Cairo" project, which at one point would have to parallel 1,000 miles of free navigation on the Nile, and that, too, "through a country which any engineer would condemn as impassable." Africa's true railway policy will be in the future, he says, as it has been in the past, one of development toward her sea communications. Senator Culberson writes of Gen. Sam Houston and Secession, a very interesting picture of that oft-occurring tragedy of 1860-61, a strong nature torn by temporarily conflicting emotions of State and national attachment.

—We find nothing else in *Harper's* quite so attractive as the witty comment of the Easy Chair on the recently published Letters of Ibsen. Mr. Howells traces back to the Romanticists the conception of self-worship as not only a pleasure but a duty of the man of genius. This egoistic cult reached its extreme in Goethe, and left him the permanent type of heartless selfishness given up to the exploitation of supposed genius by any means available, fair or foul. In the letters of Ibsen the tradition appears again, "oddly zigzagging from the classic Goethe to the most mystical of the realists." No greater mind or more perfect art has revealed itself in our time, and yet his letters display this great mind "riveted to the little task of making the most of himself, to the pitiful business of getting the best there is in the narrow plot of ground where his poverty tethers him, like a fowl tied by the leg to a stake." By way of comparison, Dante did not go about consciously developing his powers, Shakspere was not subjectively an egoist, and Tolstoy occupied his mind with something other than "assisting the Creator in bringing the sovereign master of fiction to his supremacy." If a hen is too self-centred, the presumption is that it is only a porcelain egg that she is sitting on after all. Even in the matter of bringing one's own gifts to perfection, it is possible that a man's first duty is to others rather than to himself. After all his strictures, however, Mr. Howells expresses a doubt whether criticism has ever been able to advise creativism to its advantage, and asks the reader to remember that it is a more modest thing to advise a poet to make *himself* different than to advise him to make his work different. Yet if he had really made himself different, it is hardly in harmony with the Easy Chair's philosophy of literature to suppose that his works could have been the same. Does Mr. Howells mean rather that he should have kept himself to himself better in the matter of his ill-adjustment to his environment? With Ibsen's course he contrasts that of Björnson, "forgetting his own æsthetic development in the work of freeing his fellow-countrymen from themselves first and from their rulers afterwards, meanwhile writing the loveliest poetry and the truest and most beautiful stories, and the shapeliest and strongest plays, both real and mystical."

—'The Siege of the South Pole' (Frederick A. Stokes Co.), by Hugh R. Mill, D. Sc., as the title indicates, is simply the record of an incomplete episode in the history of geographical exploration. It does not attempt to describe the Antarctic regions nor to discuss the various problems connected with them. The author, who was for eight years librarian of the Royal Geographical Society, has made as readable a book as was possible, considering the mass of monotonous details of voyages in which the main incidents of ice and storm were so very similar. Of its substantial accuracy there can be no doubt. The introductory sketch of the early attempts to solve the mystery of the South Pole is interesting as showing the origin of the idea of a spherical earth and the part which the Antarctic problem played in the theological controversies of the early Christian ages. An Irish monk named Virgil was excommunicated by Pope Zacharias in 741 for teaching the heretical doctrine of Antipodes, "admitting the existence of souls who shared neither the sin of Adam nor the redemption of Christ." The three great expeditions of Cook, Wilkes, and Ross receive the most attention, but to the exploits of the American sealers in the South Seas during the first half of the last century a noteworthy chapter is devoted. The centre of this enterprise was Stonington, Conn. "Fleets of small vessels were fitted out there year after year, and the pluck of their skippers and crews led them often far into the Antarctic regions." In one of them, the 40-ton cutter *Hero*, Skipper Nathaniel B. Palmer, discovered land which still bears his name, given it by the Russian explorer, Admiral Bellinghausen, in token of his appreciation of the achievement. Much use is made in this account of the little known works of Edmund Fanning and Benjamin Morrell, and Dr. Mill records his satisfaction at learning that there is in preparation a history of American sealers in the far south which "cannot fail to be a fascinating work." From the time of Ross to the close of the century there is little to chronicle, the search for Franklin absorbing the attention of all interested in Polar research. After a brief description of the four great expeditions of the twentieth century, the author closes with a statement of what he regards as the best plan of operations for "the raising of the siege." He believes that it would not be wise to despatch a new expedition before 1909, and that it should be provided with light motor cars and a wireless telegraph equipment. The numerous illustrations, which add much to the interest and attractiveness of the work, are reproductions of drawings, photographs and maps, while Mr. J. G. Bartholomew contributes a large map in colors, exhibiting the geographical results of the latest expeditions.

—The official report of the Universal Congress of Lawyers and Jurists held at St. Louis in 1904, "under the auspices of the Universal Exposition and the American Bar Association," published at St. Louis (the Lakeside Press), and edited by the secretary of the Congress, Mr. V. Mott Porter, makes a stout octavo volume of some four hundred pages. It is interesting chiefly from the distinguished and representative nature of the membership; the papers read and proceedings had do not gain in weight by being produced under the "auspices" even of a Universal Exposition. The president of the Congress was Justice Brewer of the Supreme Court, and the members, nearly a thousand in number, were named by the various governments throughout the world to whom invitations

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had been sent through the State Department—by bar associations, law faculties, and kindred associations. Many noted lawyers took part in the proceedings of the Congress, and there is every evidence that it was "a most enjoyable occasion"; but it was, on the whole, rather a parade of lawyers than a deliberative meeting with a definite end in view, and consequently it leaves behind it little more than one or two papers, some discussion, and a few resolutions of no very great importance. It should be observed, however, that the Congress was one of the agencies for the promotion of the second Hague Congress, yet to convene; and this lends interest to a paper by Mr. John W. Foster on the settlement of international controversies by resort to the Hague Tribunal or reference to special commissions. Mr. Foster insists, we are glad to see, that the assumed necessity of excluding from general arbitration treaties questions involving "honor" or "vital interests" rests on no substantial basis. The only question which cannot be submitted to arbitration is the Monroe Doctrine, but that is because we will not tolerate the insolence of any one but ourselves saying what it means—not because the questions which arise under it are inherently inarbitrable.

—Paper and type, printer and publisher, have all done their best for Mr. Charles J. Billson of Corpus Christi College, Oxford, in his new translation of the 'Æneid' (London: Arnold; New York: Longmans, Green & Co.), and the two quarto volumes have a stately and dignified air which seems to promise that, within, somewhat may be found worthy of "that Virgil, that fount which poureth forth so large a stream of speech." But alas! *quantum mutatus ab illo!* Again we find the woodenness and monotony which have so often characterized the modern attempt to render into blank verse the stately measure, the long roll, and the constant variation of rhythm which mark the great original. To diffusiveness Mr. Billson can indeed with truth plead not guilty; condensed he is (and Virgil has been called the most condensed of poets), for he renders the Æneid into exactly the same number of verses as the Latin. But in this process he is of course obliged to omit much of the thought which the longer hexameter line can convey. Thus—

"Now a mighty trunk
Lies headless on the shore, a corpse unnamed"

for

"Jacet ingens litore truncus
Avolsumque umeris caput, et sine nomine corpus,"

is one example of what we mean. Another is:

"Whence art thou come
Dear-hoped-for Hector?"

where the real meaning of *oris* (limbos), which adds so much to the bitter cry of Æneas, is wholly lost. Not that there are no good points in Mr. Billson's renderings; a faithful endeavor not to introduce into them ideas and thoughts foreign to the original, marks them throughout as the work of a scholar, but that a scholar's work they are, and not a poet's, is our principal quarrel with them.

—The veteran Gaston Boissier's 'Conjuration de Catilina' (Paris: Hachette) is another of those books in which his charm of style and sound common sense (gifts not too often attendant upon scholarship) have lent fresh life to a well-worn theme. As usual with M. Boissier, the title is a text upon which to base a general treatment of the *tempora et mores* of the event about which Cicero never tired of talking, and which led to the first Latin historical monograph in Sallust's tractate. It may be read with interest by the layman, and the philologian will find not a few pages that are worthy of his study. For instance, Boissier thinks that Sallust's 'Catiline' was a sort of literary manifesto against Cicero—not as man or politician, but as writer. Thus, to take a small detail: everybody knows that the intercepted letter from Catiline to one of his friends is preserved to us in two versions, Cicero's and Sallust's. Boissier holds that the former is the genuine one, and that Sallust retouched it in parts to make it conform to his own ideas of style. On the other hand, those who have read Zielinski's recent treatise on the *clausulæ* of Cicero will remember that he believes that Sallust's is the authentic version, and that Cicero recast the original in order to make it rhythmical. *Quis hos inter doctos dijudicabit?*

LEA'S SPANISH INQUISITION.

A History of the Inquisition of Spain. By Henry Charles Lea, LL.D. In four volumes. Volume I. The Macmillan Co. 1906. Pp. xii., 620.

For nearly twenty years Mr. Lea has been the acknowledged master in the study of the Inquisition. Appearing in 1887, when serious investigation had just begun to penetrate a territory long reserved to the controversialist and the pamphleteer, his 'History of the Inquisition of the Middle Ages' at once took rank as an accepted authority; and with such correction in detail as has been made in the recent French and German translations, it still maintains its position as the only comprehensive account of the subject which rests upon an independent examination of the sources. For the most significant modern phase of the Inquisition Mr. Lea now promises to render an equally important service to historical scholarship in the elaborate work on the Inquisition of Spain, of which the first volume, dealing with the origin and establishment of the Holy Office and its relations with the State, is now at hand, while the other three are ready for the press.

It is, of course, not to be expected that a subject of such controversial possibilities should have been wholly neglected by others. First and last, a good deal has been written about the Spanish Inquisition, but usually in a spirit of rancorous attack or disingenuous apology which has served to obscure rather than to elucidate the real nature of the institution. The most important treatise on the subject, the 'Histoire Critique de l'Inquisition d'Espagne,' published early in the last century by a former secretary of the tribunal, Llorente, made large use of documentary sources, and possesses more merit than Catholic writers have generally been willing to allow, but it bears evident signs of haste and prejudice, and could not escape the taint of its author's apostasy. There is abundant room for new treatment of the whole matter, but the task is not to be undertaken lightly. The subject is intricate and thorny, and the materials for its study lie for the most part unpublished and uncalendared in the archives and libraries of Spain and other European countries, while very little has been done in the way of preliminary exploration or monographic investigation. In this case the historian must be quarryman as well as architect—indeed, he must be quarryman first of all, lest he be tempted to treat his materials in accordance with some preconceived idea, ecclesiastical or anti-ecclesiastical—and must have that combination of patient research and sound historical judgment which Mr. Lea possesses in an exceptional degree.

The *inquisitio hereticæ pravitatis* of the Middle Ages never became important in Spain, for the reason that the heresies of this period—the doctrines of the Waldenses and Albigenses—never acquired a firm foothold south of the Pyrenees. There was no Inquisition in Castile before the days of Ferdinand and Isabella; it was not effectively organized in Portugal; and even in Aragon, where the spread of heretical movements from Languedoc had led to the appointment of inquisitors in the thirteenth century, the institution was never vigorously active. The origin of the new Inquisition established toward the close of the fifteenth century is to be sought in a quite different quarter, namely, in the peculiar conditions surrounding the Jewish population of the Peninsula. Jews there had been in Spain since Roman days, and the Visigothic kings and bishops adopted a harsh policy of persecution which brought them as near the Inquisition "as the rudeness of the age and the looseness of their tottering political organization would permit"; but under Mohammedan rule the Spanish Jews enjoyed the freedom and large opportunities which were open to them throughout Islam, and, curiously enough, the long wars of the *reconquista* served to soften rather than to embitter the relations between the different races and faiths. As in Syria, in the days of the Latin kingdom, so in Spain, "mutual attrition, so far from inflaming prejudices, led to mutual toleration, so that fanaticism became reduced to a minimum precisely in that corner of Christendom where *a-priori* reasoners have been tempted to regard it as especially violent." On the whole, the Spaniards of the Middle Ages, ecclesiastics as well as laymen, appear to have been remarkably tolerant, and the hatred for Jew and infidel which has been so notable a trait of Spanish character in modern times, far from being an inborn quality of the race, a *cosa de España* which requires no explanation, dates only from the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. The change of attitude with regard to the Jews arose from the gradual introduction into the Spanish church of the spirit of oppression and persecution which prevailed in other parts of Latin Christendom; the terrible massacres of 1391 formed the turning-point, and the religious bigotry thenceforth so assiduously fostered culminated a century later in the inhuman decree which drove all adherents of the Hebrew faith from the Peninsula.

Under the fear of death or the threat of persecution, large numbers of Jews sought immunity by professing Christianity, and, with the barrier of religion removed, these

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new Christians accumulated still greater wealth, rose to the highest positions in Church and State, and intermarried with the oldest families. "The time soon came when there were few of the ancient nobility of Spain who were not connected, closely or remotely, with the Jew"; the first inquisitor-general, Torquemada, was of Jewish descent, and so was his successor, Diego Deza. But hatred of the Jew, once it had been aroused against his religion, easily extended to his race, and the prosperity of the *conversos* served only to increase the popular detestation. Moreover, in one respect they were now at a serious disadvantage:

"As Jews they might be despoiled and humiliated, confined in narrow Jewries, and restricted as to their careers and means of livelihood, but withal they enjoyed complete freedom of faith, in which they were subjected only to their own rabbis. They were outside of the Church, and the Church claimed no jurisdiction over them in matters of religion, so long as they did not openly blaspheme Christianity or seek to make proselytes. As soon, however, as the convert was baptized, he became a member of the Church, and for any aberration from orthodoxy he was amenable to its laws. . . . The circumstances under which the mass of conversions was effected —threats of massacre or the wearing pressure of inhuman laws—were not such as to justify confidence in the sincerity of the neophytes, nor, when baptism was administered indiscriminately to multitudes, was there a possibility of detailed instruction in the complicated theology of their new faith. Rabbinical Judaism, moreover, so entwines itself with every detail of the believer's daily life, and attaches so much importance to the observances which it enjoins, that it was impossible for whole communities, thus suddenly Christianized, to abandon the rites and usages which, through so many generations, had become a part of existence itself. Earnest converts might have brought up their children as Christians and the grandchildren might have outgrown the old customs, but the *conversos* could not be earnest converts, and the sacred traditions, handed down by father to son from the days of the Sanhedrin, were too precious to be set aside. . . .

"The insincerity of the conversion of a large portion of the Marranos was incontestable; according to the principles universally accepted at the period, it was the duty of the sovereigns to reduce them to conformity; with the pacification of the land the time had come to attempt this resolutely and comprehensively, and the only question was as to the method."

Nevertheless, some years elapsed between the accession of Ferdinand and Isabella in 1474 and the actual organization of the Inquisition in Castile. Not only did the rich and powerful *conversos* throughout the kingdom bring all their influence to bear at the court and at Rome, but the arrangements between the Catholic sovereigns and the Pope were a matter of some difficulty, for "Ferdinand and Isabella desired, not the ordinary papal Inquisition, but one which should be under the royal control and should pour into the royal treasury the resultant confiscations." The bull of Sixtus IV., authorizing the appointment of inquisitors by the crown, was granted in 1478, but no commissions under it were issued until 1480, and it was not till the following year that the fires of the first *auto da fe* were lighted at Seville. In 1483 Torquemada was made inquisitor-general for Castile, and a special council, the Suprema, created, with jurisdiction over all matters connected with the faith; but the Pope had likewise appointed inquisitors, holding faculties immediately from the Holy See, and it was some years before the relations of the ecclesiastical and secular authorities reached a fairly permanent adjustment. "There was a constant struggle on the one hand to render the Spanish Holy Office national and independent, and on the other to keep it subject to papal control"; and there were special difficulties in extending the new organization to the Aragonese kingdoms, where the Dominican Inquisition still survived, and where the people were fiercely jealous of royal authority.

It will thus be seen that, from its very beginning, the Spanish Inquisition was a peculiar institution, differing from the episcopal and Dominican tribunals of the Middle Ages by reason of its close connection with the State; and the question of its exact relation to the public authorities constitutes one of the most important problems in its history. The view that the Holy Office in Spain was not an ecclesiastical institution at all, but a part of the civil government, can claim so high an authority as Ranke in its support, and has been widely circulated by two generations of Catholic apologists, eager to relieve the Church from so heavy a burden of responsibility. More recently there has been a movement in the opposite direction, and Pastor, perhaps the most eminent Catholic historian of the present day, has abandoned the apologetic attitude and declared frankly that the Spanish Inquisition was "a mixed institution of a predominantly ecclesiastical character." With this view Mr. Lea is in essential agreement; but, instead of treating the relations of the two elements as the fixed and unchanging results of certain principles of law, he makes it clear that they varied considerably from reign to reign. To quote his language:

"What gave to the Spanish Inquisition its peculiar and terrible efficiency was the completeness of its organization and its combination of the mysterious authority of the Church with the secular power of the crown. The old Inquisition was purely an ecclesiastical institution, empowered, it is true, to call upon the State for aid and for the execution of its sentences, but throughout Christendom the relations between Church and State were too often antagonistic for its commands always to receive obedience. In Spain, however, the Inquisition represented not only the Pope, but the King; it practically wielded the two swords—the spiritual and the temporal—and the combination produced a tyranny similar in character, but far more minute and all-pervading, to that which England suffered during the closing years of Henry VIII. as Supreme Head of the Church.

"While thus its domination over the people was secure and unvarying, its relations with the royal power varied with the temperament of the sovereign. At times it was the instrument of his will; at others it seemed as though it might almost supplant the monarchy; it was constantly seeking to extend its awful authority over the other departments of state, which struggled with varying success to resist its encroachments, while successive kings, autocratic in theory, sometimes posed as arbitrators, sometimes vainly endeavored to enforce their pacificatory commands, but more generally yielded to its domineering spirit."

As might be expected, the control of the crown was at its maximum under Ferdinand the Catholic. He made the power of appointing and dismissing the officials of the Inquisition an indispensable condition of its introduction, and, in spite of the manifold cares of domestic and foreign policy, found time to keep every detail of its organization and working under his constant supervision. Moreover, as the Inquisition had no revenues apart from the expenses and salaries which the King allowed it out of the proceeds of its confiscations, it was in no position to assert its independence. "It was inevitable that, when this powerful personality was withdrawn, the royal control over the Inquisition should diminish." The crown never lost the right of appointing the heads of the Holy Office, but they were not responsible to any other body in the State; and with the growth of the cumbersome bureaucracy of the seventeenth century the Suprema succeeded in interposing itself between the crown and its subordinates in such a way as seriously to limit the real authority of the sovereign. The Holy Office also gained control over its own finances, and it was not till the days of the Bourbons that its independence was seriously restricted.

In spite, however, of its close relations with the State, the Inquisition remained a strictly ecclesiastical tribunal. If its sentences of death were executed by the secular power, this had also been true of the condemnations for heresy in the Middle Ages, and only served to demonstrate more clearly the ecclesiastical character of a jurisdiction which observed the precepts of the canon law with regard to the participation of clerks in capital sentences. Though nominated by the King, the inquisitor-general was invested with the powers of his office by *motu proprio* of the Pope, and the members of the Suprema received by delegation from him the faculties which gave them jurisdiction over heresy. Even Ferdinand, as appears from his correspondence, abstained from interference with their spiritual jurisdiction. As a body charged with the maintenance of the faith, the Holy Office asserted its superiority over all other bodies in the State, and insisted with truly Spanish punctiliousness upon the precedence of its officers and agents on public occasions. It claimed exemption from taxation and customs dues, and demanded for its officials and servants the right to bear arms and the right to refuse military service, as well as the right to hold secular office and to decline it. Moreover, this *imperium in imperio* did not limit its jurisdiction to matters of faith. *Boni judicis est ampliare jurisdictionem*, and, by a natural application of the principle of benefit of clergy, the Inquisition asserted its exclusive competence in cases involving its subordinates, and maintained its claims in the face of continued resistance on the part of the various secular and spiritual courts. Multiplication of unsalaried officials subject to its jurisdiction was a natural consequence, so that it might easily arise that "unprofitable business was neglected for profitable, and the suppression of heresy was postponed to the trial of civil and criminal cases which yielded fees."

No summary of Mr. Lea's conclusions can give an idea of the extent of his research or the skill with which he unravels the threads of a tangled subject. Although only a few of the more notable documents are reproduced, the volume rests throughout on original materials, carefully examined and sifted and scrupulously cited. The author's method is that of the sober

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and objective historian. There is no moralizing and no striving for dramatic effect; the purpose is simply to trace and explain the development and character of a very remarkable institution, whose real nature is to be seen in its normal operations rather than in the sensational episodes of its history, and whose significance lies "not so much in the awful solemnities of the *auto da fe*, or in the cases of a few celebrated victims, as in the silent influence exercised by its incessant and secret labors among the mass of the people and in the limitations which it placed upon the Spanish intellect."

The amount of detail which this method of treatment involves will to some appear excessive, but it is only in concrete detail that the actual workings of institutions can be understood, and it is refreshing to have at hand a substantial amount of definite fact in a field where previous writers have given us so much passionate and unsupported generalization. Moreover, it is impossible to cut deep into a subject like the Inquisition without throwing light on many other sides of Spanish history. Thus, a careful examination of the correspondence of Ferdinand the Catholic with the officials of the Inquisition not only shows his minute control of every department of the Government and his anxiety to lose nothing of the confiscated property of the condemned, but also reveals "an innate sense of justice wholly unexpected in a monarch who ranked next to Cesar Borgia in the estimation of Machiavelli." The rare appearance of Isabella's name in this correspondence leads Mr. Lea to "the conviction that her share in the administration of her kingdom has been exaggerated." There are also interesting illustrations of the anarchy of mediæval Castile, the struggles of Crown and Cortes, the character of the bureaucracy, and the system of taxation. The appendix contains a list of tribunals and inquisitors-general, and a brief account of the intricacies of Spanish coinage, as well as a number of interesting documents.

AN ENLIGHTENED SPIRIT.

The Journal of Latrobe: Being the Notes and Sketches of an Architect, Naturalist, and Traveller in the United States from 1796 to 1820. By Benjamin Henry Latrobe, Architect of the Capitol at Washington. With an introduction by J. H. B. Latrobe. D. Appleton & Co. 1905.

This is a remarkably comely and restrained filial memorial to a man who deserves to be remembered professionally and for his own high qualities. Latrobe was born, presumably in England, about 1767; there is no precise statement of place or date, and the particulars of his transatlantic life are very meagre. His father, of Huguenot stock, was a Moravian clergyman; his mother was a Pennsylvanian of a family well known to Gen. Washington. He himself was educated in Yorkshire and at Leipzig on the eve of the French Revolution, whose generous principles he imbibed without fanaticism. His draughtsmanship was precocious, and he was well advanced in the practice of architecture when the death of his first wife depressed his spirits and determined him to remove to America. There is no certain knowledge of the works he left behind him. He landed in Norfolk, Va., and it would appear that he never visited the country east of the Delaware. He resided by turns in Richmond, Philadelphia, Washington, Pittsburgh, Baltimore, and finally New Orleans, where he died in 1820. In the twenty-four years thus occupied he had built a penitentiary for Richmond, the Bank of Pennsylvania in Philadelphia, the Baltimore Exchange and Cathedral (this still unfinished, except as regards the interior), with many other minor edifices, and had furnished Philadelphia and New Orleans with water works. Above all, having been in 1803 made Surveyor of Public Buildings in Washington, he had rescued the new Capitol from its deplorable beginnings and reared the best-known monument to himself. Of architecture, nevertheless, there is all too little in this volume. He says of his craft (p. 147):

"The architect, indeed, requires all the imagination of the painter. The building exists in his mind before it is sketched upon paper; and if the operation of design is the same in other heads as mine, arrangement, construction, and decoration are attained so simultaneously that I seldom materially change the design first elaborated."

Other personal indications are his preference for the French arrangement of domestic interiors by which rooms freely become thoroughfares, as contrasted with "the detestable, lopsided London house, in which a common passage and stairs acts as a common sewer to all the necessities of the dwelling" and forbids equable heating (p. 187). And again (p. 140): "I would never put a cupola on any spherical dome. It is not the *ornament*, it is the *use* that I want." He says (p. 54) of Mrs. Radcliffe that she is particularly successful in descriptions of buildings, "though I once endeavored to plan the Castle of Udolpho from her account of it and found it impossible." Robert Morris's folly, the huge unfinished pile constructed upon L'Enfant's carefully secreted plans, equally baffled him. "It is impossible to decide which of the two is the madder, the architect or his employer. Both of them have been ruined by it" (p. 92). Eight years later, in Washington, "daily through the city stalks, the picture of famine, L'Enfant and his dog. The plan of the city is probably his, though others claim it" (p. 133). Latrobe's criticism of Thornton's plan for the national Capitol, of which no drawings existed, is (p. 115): "To speak plainly, the design was evidently the production of a man wholly ignorant of architecture, having brilliant ideas, but possessing neither the knowledge necessary for the execution nor the capacity to methodize and combine the various parts of a public work." His son tells us that when he had received the commission to build the Bank of Pennsylvania there was no book procurable in this country to which to refer for the proportions of the orders. The Journal fitly closes with his observation of two French officers looking at this building without saying a word. "After some time one of them exclaimed several times, 'C'est si beau, et si simple!' He said no more, and stood for a few minutes longer before he walked away with his companion. I do not recollect distinctly anything that has happened that has given me so much particular satisfaction."

The Journal is the production of a gentleman of breeding, liberal education, tone, humor, democratic instincts, and sobriety of living. He was, for example, a water-drinker, and had every reason to be shocked in his fastidiousness by the coarse manners prevalent in his day at the South; but he records it all without disgust. He discusses the question, raised by a cultivated Italian traveller, "Do you think the Virginians really hospitable?" quite philosophically and in extenuation of "us Virginians." He had a taste of Washington's hospitality on a visit to Mt. Vernon in 1797, a valuable record. The ex-President "laughed heartily several times in a very good-humored manner." Eleanor Custis was a dream of beauty (she is delineated as a figure on a Grecian vase); young Lafayette rather awkward in his build. Latrobe's being consulted as to the regulations and by-laws of the Charlestown (Va.) Academy draws from him an elaborate comment editorially mislabelled, "Thoughts on National System of Education." Noticeable here is his objection not to teaching the classics, but to giving them the preference over everything, and his humane protest against flogging.

New Orleans is the main rubric of the Journal, and it is hard to refrain from quoting Latrobe's many graphic "impressions" regarding the inhabitants and their ways (in 1818), and his broadminded observations on Sabbatarianism, cremation, yellow fever, etc. We shall, however, conclude this notice with his unpremeditated reflections on slavery, in which he speaks as an American or even as a Virginian. It is true, he wrote after ten days' acquaintance with the city and its exemplification of the "peculiar institution," though the Rev. Amasa Converse, D. D., a Northern man with Southern and secessionist principles, laid down the law to the Rev. Albert Barnes, D. D., that no one was qualified to write on slavery who had not lived at least five years in a slaveholding community. Still, here is what Latrobe sets down of the creoles and their reputation for extreme cruelty (p. 182):

"In going into Davis's ball-room and looking around the brilliant circle of ladies, it is impossible to imagine that any one of the fair, mild, and somewhat languid faces could express any feeling but of kindness and humanity. And yet several, I had almost said many, of these soft beauties had themselves handled the cowskin with a sort of savage pleasure, and those soft eyes had looked on the tortures of their slaves, inflicted by their orders, with satisfaction, while they had coolly prescribed the dose of infliction, the measure of which should stop short of the life of their property."

The contrast haunts him, for, after cataloguing some atrocious cases, one on the part of his own landlady—"Madame Tremoulet, why should I conceal the name of such a termagant?"—while he was a guest in her hotel, he recurs to that ballroom on Washington's birthday (p. 184):

"All pale, languid, and mild. I fancied that I saw a cowskin in every pretty hand, gracefully waved in the dance; and admired the comparative awkwardness of look and motion of my countrywomen, whose arms had never been rendered pliant by the exercise of the whip upon the bound and screaming slaves."

But Latrobe was, if not unjust to the creoles, too lenient to his adopted countrywomen. In 'American Slavery As It Is'

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(1839), at page 23, one may read Miss Sarah M. Grimké's unimpeachable Southern aristocratic testimony to this effect:

"A punishment dreaded more by the slaves than whipping, unless it is unusually severe, is one which was invented by a female acquaintance of mine in Charleston—I heard her say so with much satisfaction. It is standing on one foot and holding the other in the hand. Afterwards it was improved upon, and a strap was contrived to fasten around the ankle and pass around the neck, so that the least weight of the foot resting on the strap would choke the person. . . . I heard this same woman say that she had the ears of her waiting-maid *slit* for some petty theft. This she told me in the presence of the girl, who was standing in the room. She often had the helpless victims of her cruelty severely whipped, not scrupling herself to wield the instrument of torture, and with her own hands inflict severe chastisement. Her husband was less inhuman than his wife, but he was often goaded on by her to acts of great severity."

In the following acute generalization Latrobe is again too narrow in confining its application to creoles (p. 204):

"Servants who are slaves are always treated with more familiarity than hirelings; probably because if you indulge and behave familiarly to a hireling, you cannot, if he presume upon it, correct him as you correct a slave, and make him feel his inferiority by corporal punishment. Therefore we find cruelty and confidence, cowhiding and caressing, perfectly in accord with one another among the creoles of this place and their slaves."

If we needed any excuse for these extracts it would be found in the old taunt (still echoing), "Why don't you go South and see for yourself?" We know what condition is suppressed: "but [in the parlance of the photographer's studio] 'look pleasant.'" Latrobe went unbidden to the South, lived in the South, without bias. He did not "look pleasant" at slavery. What weight will the Southern mind attach to his testimony?

The numerous charming sketches from Latrobe's brush sprinkled through his Journal are the best sort of historical annals, and illustrate natural scenery and the works of man from the Wissahickon to the Balize. A few thumb-nail pen-and-ink portraits, of marked felicity—Edmund Randolph, Patrick Henry, Washington—make us long for more. On the other hand, a book so beautifully and generously made, with large type and unglazed paper, is painfully marred by faulty proofreading. The worst instance (p. 247) results in this unintelligible characterization: "Chateaubriand, the *disgrace* of eloquence and of talents." In fine, this work, whose entertaining and instructive quality we have but faintly suggested, should find an honored place in every library.

HOW OUGHT HISTORY TO BE TAUGHT AT A UNIVERSITY?

A Plea for the Historical Teaching of History: An Inaugural Lecture delivered by C. H. Firth, on November 9, 1904. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde. 1905.

Inaugural Lecture on the Study of History, Delivered on Wednesday, February 7, 1906, by Charles Oman. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde. 1906.

Professor Firth and Professor Oman are two of the most eminent among Oxford teachers. They have each given a reply to the above question. It is well worth while to set aside for a moment matters of detail which concern only the mechanism of historical teaching at Oxford, and to consider what is the answer provided by two distinguished historians to an inquiry which assuredly ought to be of interest to the universities of America no less than to those of England. There is the more reason for doing this because readers who compare the inaugural lecture of Mr. Firth with the inaugural lecture of Mr. Oman are likely to imagine (erroneously, as we are convinced) that a very marked difference means something like distinct opposition, and that two men equally devoted to historical study utterly disagree as to the mode in which history should be taught.

Professor Firth obviously considers that the main object of historical teaching at a great university is the preparation of students for the work of historians. It is quite certain, he insists, and, no one can doubt, with perfect truth, that our future historians need special training. In the attempt to ascertain and to draw the proper inferences from the events of the past, or, to use Professor Firth's expression, "to reduce superabundant facts into order, to show their connection with each other and to distinguish the true statement from the false," an historical student needs special training quite as much as does a youth bent upon learning medicine or law or divinity or any other branch of liberal knowledge. It is also certain that this special training is not at present provided at the old English universities. The result seems inevitably to follow that "it is the business of the Professors of History and the University teachers of the subject . . . to provide this in Oxford; *the professional training of historians is our proper function.*"

The words we have italicized contain the true gist of his inaugural address. Nor can any impartial judge doubt that the principle on which he insists is of the very highest value. In the sphere of history, as elsewhere, special and technical knowledge has acquired a new importance. It becomes, therefore, a matter of necessity that a university which fulfils its duty should supply for any man who intends to make the object of his life the ascertainment of historical truth, the discipline essential for the attainment of his purpose. We may go a step further and agree with Professor Firth that Oxford has some special advantages for successfully performing a duty which the University does not at present adequately discharge. The distinction between College tutors and University professors has its evils. No one can fail to see that the relation between the two needs readjustment; but no man who acknowledges, as we unreservedly do, the immense debt owed by the University to the collegiate teachers can doubt that the distinction between College instruction and University teaching might lead to a very beneficial division of work. This division might leave to the historical professors, as their special task, the training of men who wished to become themselves historians. Then, too, the intimate relation between teacher and student which is the essential merit of the College system, might also characterize the relation between the professor and the students whom he trained as specialists. Nor can one keep out of view the consideration that the historical character of the old English seats of learning and of English institutions generally does excite, as it ought to excite, among many undergraduates and graduates special interest in history. To bring the matter home to our own public, we ask whether they can doubt that, if Oxford provided an elaborate training in historical research, England would supply a better school for the training of American inquirers interested in the past of the whole English people than could, for them, be created at Paris or at any of the universities of Germany? If this inquiry be answered as we are convinced it must be, then the doctrine preached by Mr. Firth ought to be hailed with enthusiasm by every American citizen who wishes to join the noble group of historians who form one of the glories of the English-speaking people. For what Mr. Firth maintains is this, not that every man who learns history should be a specialist, but that every man who wishes to become a specialist should find at Oxford the needful instruction. To put his point in plain terms: men who have taken their degrees, or perhaps do not mean to take a degree at all, should receive at Oxford a training at least as good as anything which they can acquire at Paris or Berlin.

Professor Oman, who may seem at first to contradict, will be found, if his lecture be carefully studied, in reality not to oppose but to supplement the doctrine of Mr. Firth. He looks at the matter, no doubt, from a very different point of view. He, rightly enough, perceives what, by the way, Mr. Firth never for a moment denies—the great virtues of the tutorial system. He recognizes a fact which is often overlooked by zealous reformers, that no system of teaching can flourish which does not meet the wants of the learners; and this general truth is in a very particular sense applicable to the universities of England. There are, indeed, far too many men who come there to have a good time and to enjoy the natural and in themselves innocent pleasures of vigorous youth; but with these men we need not for the moment concern ourselves. Teachers at a university must in the main devote their powers to the benefit of students who wish, or whose parents wish them, to receive training in something better than rowing, football, and cricket. But even when we have eliminated the men whose object in coming to Oxford or Cambridge is not the development of their intellectual talents, we must still draw a distinction between two views of this sort of moral or intellectual instruction which a university should provide for its true students.

The fact "that must be faced is, that [Oxford] is a Place of Education as well as a Place of Research"—these words strike the real keynote of Professor Oman's inaugural address. They deserve, as they will receive, careful attention. It is often, as the Professor admits, most difficult to correlate these two functions of general education and special research; but in any case "there remains the obvious fact that we are confronted by a large body of young men who have to be educated, and that the larger proportion of them are intended for careers for which no technical-schools curriculum exists." Of this body a very small proportion indeed are destined in the

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end to take up the burden of original research; and to this statement we add that the members of the great public, the so-called educated classes, do not in England appreciate at its due worth the merit of special or technical knowledge, while they do appreciate, not perhaps above its worth but assuredly at its full value, that very curious mixture of good qualities and of defects, of gross ignorance and of a certain broad knowledge of life, which is popularly known as the education of an English gentleman. It is assuredly, therefore, the fact, and we are thankful to Professor Oman for forcing it into attention, that the majority even of the best students at Oxford or Cambridge will not be specialists, nor will they, as things now stand, either desire or with any eagerness accept technical instruction in historical research. But this does not mean that history can teach them nothing; they will learn, if properly taught, and even under a system in many ways defective do learn, the general outlines of English and European history. These outlines, be it remembered, may be taught well or ill. They may be taught, and we fully believe at Oxford are taught, in a way which kindles an interest in the annals of the past that gives learners some knowledge, not only of the main events that make up modern history, but also of the principles by which these events have been regulated and of the general conclusions which they suggest. Nor is it possible that good teaching, such as is given by the best professors and the best tutors at Oxford, should not excite in the minds of a limited number of disciples the desire to study history on their own behalf, and some sort of idea, however vague, of the kind of training which, especially in modern times, any man needs who aspires to become an historian.

No doubt it is true that no discipline whatever can create genius—just as it is also true that the ignorant pedantry of a university cannot utterly destroy the force of innate originality or of enthusiastic industry. The intellectual torpidity of Magdalen did not, after all, prevent Gibbon from producing the 'Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire,' the Jacobitism and dulness of Balliol did not make it impossible for Adam Smith to become the author of the 'Wealth of Nations.' Still, the negative credit of not destroying innate genius hardly justifies the existence or the emoluments of a so-called place of learning, and at this point Mr. Oman's teaching brings us round to and confirms the doctrine of Mr. Firth. For, after all, it is only the old and eternal story of the two sides of the shield. There exists not the remotest reason why, whilst the mass of Oxford students are supplied with a sound knowledge of history, the select body of men who wish to carry on the special study of history, should not find at Oxford the special training which they now generally seek for on the Continent.

As there is no essential opposition between the lesson insisted upon by each of our professors, we may well come to the conclusion that each places before us one-half of the whole truth. But if one be asked whether the doctrine of Mr. Oman or the doctrine of Mr. Firth be the more seasonable, it is impossible not to answer that the text on which Mr. Firth has preached is that which, in the year 1906, needs, more than any other, to be forced upon the attention of the English universities and the English world. The Oxford School of History has achieved most valuable work; but, as invariably happens, in the case of universities no less than of individuals, the adequate performance of one duty leads to the necessity for taking some further step along the arduous and never-ending path of progress. A school which has created, even among a limited number of disciples, such an interest in history that they long to take up the burden of research, cannot stand still; such a school must, at any cost whatever, provide for the best among its scholars the means for gaining something better than a good degree—that is, for satisfying the noble rage for knowledge.

NOVELS, OLD AND NEW.

Calmire: Man and Nature. Sixth Edition.—*Sturmsee:* Man and Man. Third Edition. By Henry Holt. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Curayl. By Una L. Silberrad. Doubleday, Page & Co.

Called to the Field. By Lucy Meacham Thruston. Little, Brown & Co.

Lady Baltimore. By Owen Wister. Macmillan Co.

The Circular Study. By Anna Katharine Green. New York: R. F. Fenno & Co.

In the fourteenth year of its life, and in its sixth edition, with Mr. Henry Holt as its lately acknowledged author, reappears 'Calmire,' revised and enlarged to the amplitude of seven hundred pages, and transferred to a new publisher. For an adequate review of this book, of its philosophies, its psychologies, its ethics, its æsthetics, its literary qualities, a small staff of experts should be employed. The reviewer of fiction may scarcely hope to pronounce upon the linked details of evolution, upon the histories of religions, upon the origins of superstitions, upon the results of psychic research, upon the possibilities of the soul's future. And these are only a few of the subjects that are threshed out by Calmire, Muriel, and Nina in their talks. The book might well be sub-entitled "The Evolutionist's Harry and Lucy." Who that has been nourished on Miss Edgeworth does not remember the long pages of natural philosophy, the building of bridges, the making of barometers, here and there broken in upon by fitful gleams of story? Even so does each event in the history of the Calmire group become a session in a school of philosophy. To the fiction reviewer it appears that the book loses by being cast in the form of a novel. Unlike the young Edgeworth reader, one would like to keep the bridges and discard the Harry and Lucy. The expositions, however, are invariably clear and animated. The author's style is to say what he means in simplified rhetoric, with buoyant disregard of classic graces. He never fails to make his burnished point. As a popular treatise on the evolution of the universe from star-dust to civilized man, 'Calmire' is exceedingly readable. It would be even more so if it were not associated with the discomfort one must feel on having two men continually sending mother upstairs after dinner and devoting their intellects to tearing up daughter by the roots from her belief in Christianity.

For real enjoyment of the book, then, eliminate the novel, and let Calmire, with his patience and his calm, his wide reading, his warm head and steady heart, give a monologue on the beginnings of things, the building up of human faculties and faiths, the future of souls, the oneness of the universe. With Nina and her susceptibilities removed from the scene, there would be no occasion for him to be kind to God for her sake. He could preach flat pantheism and have done with it.

Man's relation to Nature having been hopefully settled by 'Calmire,' the characters add other chosen spirits unto themselves, and, stepping forward a few years, reappear in 'Sturmsee,' where they dispose of sociology. The relations of labor and capital, coöperation, conspiracy, strikes, competition, Trusts, single tax, the tariff, are the leading motives, yet are there time and space for elaborated views on aristocracies and democracies. New York society, capital punishment, the probationary system, euthanasia, settlement work, æsthetics, dead laws, house decoration, war, divorce, and the relation of ability to the instep, to which may be added sundry topics arising on the fiction side of the work—Mount Desert picnics, with landscape attachments, balls in the East, pageants in the West, obstacles to love between princes and subjects, the Chicago Fair, heroes with brows rent by pain and anguish, ministering angels raised thereto, the eligibility of a tin manufacturer to enter the best New York society, the decision of Calmire that he may worthily do so, and not only that, but that there is no real reason for his hesitating to dine with him, Calmire, who adds encouragingly, "At every dinner I go to, I meet men who are immeasurably beneath you in every particular."

Sociologically, the doctrine is more constructive than were the theologic teachings of 'Calmire.' Like those, they are admirably stated; they are more than lucid—they are luminous and illuminating. One can find no more lively or interesting showing of contemporary theory than in the talks of the various characters. What the magnate, the workman, the settlement worker, the anarchist respectively think is set down vividly and fairly. The reader who saw Calmire cheerfully flinging Christianity into the gulf of past errors will be hardly prepared to find him and his friends on the conservative side of questions pertaining to trades unions and the rights of labor, combating the Marx doctrines that the only value in a product is the labor put into it, and that wages get none of the benefit of increased invention; characterizing collectivism as "a lovely ideal for the future, perhaps," but recognizing in individualism the only productive power as the world now exists; advocating the slow ways of nature in all economic changes, since the cures that go faster than the men will inevitably wreck them; foreseeing that "men's conditions will grow toward equality just as fast as men grow toward equality in productive power"; and declaring that there is no good way to prevent the top-heavy fortunes of to-day "but by increasing the average man's capacity to produce a share of them and by slow experiments in improving the laws."

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The searcher for stimulating suggestions must read, too, what Governor Sturmsee thought and did. He inspired legislation against railroad strikes; he believed in denying to self-declared anarchists the protection of government; he was tempted to let a poor wretch die, but saved him, recalling his physician's oath, and reflecting that "no one man's wisdom is safer than the wisdom of the ages." He advocated probation unto the third offence, and would have liked to advocate capital punishment for habitual criminals, but refrained. And his State arose and called him blessed. Between the covers, furthermore, may be found a picture of social struggle, where the Smart Set are to some extent differentiated from the best set, as social novels do not always remember to do. The novel, however, is a handicap to the doctrine even more than in the case of 'Calmire,' inasmuch as there are more characters and more situations to obstruct the real proceedings. 'Sturmsee' contains a good deal of Miss Alcott's instructive and ethical lovemaking, which may or may not be a recommendation. Muriel has partially subsided and improved since his 'Calmire' days. Yet, in regard to his unpleasant pleasantries, it is observable that he is still suffering from arrested evolution. Nina is a finished product, and can afford to be silent. Calmire remains catholic, charitable, judicial. Sturmsee himself, the German-American doctor and governor, is a cross between Lohengrin and a pamphlet on economics.

After novels of ologies and osophies there is a deal of lazy comfort in the old-fashioned rural English, typhus-fever story, with ill-drained cottages and lady and gentlemen volunteer nurses. Such cerebral calm falls on the reader of 'Curayl,' although the last page is reached by ways traversing many original fields and pastures. The posing of a layman as a clergyman, half-accidentally and with benevolent intent, for a single occasion as he supposes, involves him and others in a vast web of consequences made the more impressive by the man's persuasive, attractive, lightly-compelling personality, aptly compared to that of the Pied Piper. Anthony Luttrell's offhand strength and a healthily controlled wild-Irishism are made into a very real little portrait of a character "not black or white, or even the neutral gray that experience had painted half the world, but composite, the brightest white and the blackest black." A great deal of black in the old family surroundings of Beatrice Curayl had made a shaded personality a new creature in her experience. As the wife of a man to whom she has been married for the old family's convenience, she is confronted with the new study which ends well for all concerned. A lost miniature is one of the leading motives in the book, and the characters, white, black, and gray, are drawn with decision. A comparative study of the verbs lie and lay would be of advantage to the writer, or proofreader, together with the use of "as" after "equally." It does not really matter whether Beatrice came to Waterside before or after Caser's death, although on pages 270 and 280 we are liberally offered the choice. 'Curayl' is a very good little novel of the minor order, and throughout holds the interest.

'Called to the Field,' a story of Virginia in the civil war, is a touching and moving recital, dealing less with the called or the field than with the left-behinds and the homesteads. It is more than a story, for it pictures in faithful detail the life of the Virginia that stayed at home, spun, wove, ploughed, and suffered while the men went to the war; that faced the raids in lonely houses and nursed the sick in forsaken attics, and planned escapes by dangerous ways, and never complained—the women of Virginia and their trusty slaves. As a story of the afflicted, harassed, tortured, but unwhining stay-at-homes, this little book has a quality not usual. For characterization, the most notable instance is the Virginian father, he who energetically ploughs and plants to the sound of the guns of Gloucester Point, saying, "There is just one way in this world to live—to plan as if we were to live forever, and then to live each day as if it were our last." The young wife, who is the narrator, has the gay, irresponsible heroic traits of her kind. The negroes are capitally done and not overdone. In short, but for tropical zones of language and landscape, 'Called to the Field' is a well-made book—all the more historically correct, perhaps, for those very exaggerations.

'Lady Baltimore' is marked by all the author's cleverness and power of observation. It is a sketch of American life, but could have been written, we think, only by an American endowed by inheritance or instinct with the power of looking at America very objectively; of seeing the absurd side of things here generally taken seriously. And we must say, also, that it is rather an extravaganza than a novel. That is, the characters behave up to a certain point as people behave in real life, but after that it is a comic-opera atmosphere. This we say, not by way of objection, but as an effort at analyzing an impression which haunts the reader throughout. There is a theatrical vividness about the scenes; the people behave like people in a play. The chapters called "The Girl behind the Counter" are a very pretty little farcical comedy by themselves. The way things happen and the way people reveal themselves is theatrical. Sometimes we find ourselves listening for the music. Even the title of the book is a masked jest. The old aunts and their conversations with the author of the tale are the funnier for being a little exaggerated. If Mr. Wister has been found fault with for these aunts' communicativeness, it must be on the erroneous ground that they are aunts proper to a novel. Once admit that the domain in which Mr. Wister acts as cicerone is often that of burlesque, and the difficulty vanishes. So do many difficulties presented by the vagaries of other persons in the story. The "yellow rich," for instance, are not at all the "yellow rich" who accomplished the ruin of Lily Bart, but almost the "multis" of a French farce.

What Mr. Wister has written might be called extravaganza with a purpose. He has managed through it all to give a charming picture of what is supposed to be left of the old society of Charleston, as it existed before the war, or rather of the provincial well-bred society which has inherited the old ideas. The tale deals with the negro question, but from the Southern point of view. Here Mr. Wister is very real. If John Mayrant's troubles in the Charleston custom house "under a negro" are not the real events of an actual career, they certainly ought to be. It is hardly necessary to say that the book is witty; the author cannot help being entertaining. The "management" of the old classical Charleston joke, its repetition as a matter of course, and the final explosion it causes, are all excellent.

The talented author of the 'Leavenworth Case' ought to be warned in time, or she will make of the detective novel a Chinese puzzle which the reader, even with the author's aid, will "give up" in despair. The "Circular Study" is a room, of course; a room in which a justifiable homicide, at first thought to be murder in the first degree, was committed. To learn the *causa causans* of this shocking event, we have to go back three generations, and get very tired on the journey. Possibly Mrs. Rohlfs cannot help herself, but the interest of such stories cannot be kept up if the plot becomes too involved to follow.

Principles of Economics. By E. R. A. Seligman. Longmans, Green & Co. 1905.

This is the third sizable treatise upon economics brought out by American writers during the last two years—not to speak of various elementary manuals and translations of foreign works. At this rate of increase, it is evident that, before long, in accordance with the principle dear to the modern economist, the marginal utility of a new text-book should fall to something approaching a minus quantity. Yet most of the recent publications have vindicated their right to exist, and, beyond question, Professor Seligman's work will do so. Its success, moreover, will be due not only to the size and rapid growth of the market, but to the fact that it offers something not found in the common run of treatises.

The 'Principles of Economics' is divided into four parts, of which the first, or introduction, deals with the fundamental concepts of the science and with economic law and method. The second treats of the elements of economic life, and considers, first, nature and man, the foundations of economic life; second, the evolution of industrial society; and, third, the conditions of economic life—such as private property, competition, and personal freedom. The third part then describes the "structure and process" of economic life; and here we find most of the subjects treated in the ordinary manual, such as production, exchange and value, and the distribution of wealth. Finally, the fourth part, or conclusion, deals with the economic functions of government and the problem of poverty—substantially the topics to which John Stuart Mill devoted his fourth and fifth books. The whole is prefaced by some thirty pages of bibliographical material which will be useful to many readers.

Turning from the form of the book to the substance, the first thing to attract attention is the large amount of space given to historical, descriptive, and illustrative materials gathered from many different sources. This feature has been prominent in most of the American treatises produced during the last six or eight years, but no previous writer has made so much of it as Professor Seligman.

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His book is compacted full of valuable information at every point, and herein, perhaps, its chief merit will be found. Numerous maps and charts—more numerous, in fact, than were ever placed in an economic textbook—give point to the descriptive and statistical discussions of the text. Withal, the data are conveniently arranged and carefully indexed so that even advanced students will find the work a useful repository of information upon matters economic.

In point of doctrine Professor Seligman is, of course, a competent guide, even though, upon this side, his work is open to criticism at various points. With commendable breadth and catholicity of view, he has drawn upon the work of all schools, classical, historical, Austrian, and American, and has sought to grasp whatever of truth there might be in each. In his very care, however, to omit no significant variety or shade of previous opinion, he has at places overburdened his theoretical chapters with references to subjects that need not be brought to the beginner's attention; while he has not always digested and thoroughly assimilated the intellectual pabulum gathered with so much care.

This shortcoming is especially evident in the treatment accorded to mooted points in the theory of distribution. The traditional practice of economists has been to separate land from capital, and to consider the income derived from the former agent of production as a different sort of income from that derived from the second. Recently, however, various writers have sought to break down the distinction between land and capital, and to assimilate the earnings of the two. Professor Seligman, on his part, presents with care the views of the opposing schools, examines each candidly and critically, and then takes what seems to him a satisfactory middle position. But the differences of view are not so easily reconcilable; and it is probable that each disputant will maintain, and maintain fairly, that, at the crucial point, Professor Seligman has missed his real contention. It is not likely that economists will remain satisfied with the halting conclusion that "land is quantitively so important as compared with any other single commodity, and possesses so unique a social significance," that the income from land "should be separated from the income accruing to other instruments of production." We may expect that economists will either conclude that the differences are more fundamental than Professor Seligman supposes, or else will refuse to separate land rent from the income derived from other things. Which alternative will ultimately find favor, we need not now consider.

And this tendency to mediate indecisively between opposing theories is not confined to the chapters dealing with value and distribution—topics which are so often, but not by this author, relegated to the limbo of "pure theory"; it may be found in some of the chapters which deal with the so-called practical problems. Professor Seligman states, with evident candor, the arguments ordinarily advanced in favor of free trade and those advanced in behalf of protection; but his own conclusions hardly satisfy. So, too, with the Trust problem. He canvasses the facts fairly and interestingly, but his presentation of principles is not convincing. Upon these, and some other topics, the most marked tendency of his discussion is, after the manner of the German "historical school," to accept what exists or has existed as "relatively" justified for the particular time and place. To many readers, doubtless, this will be an additional recommendation for the book, but we believe that American economic writing at the present time is suffering from an excess of this scientific "standpattism."

With all its merits, therefore, Professor Seligman's 'Principles' has, upon its theoretical side, serious shortcomings. As a book of reference it should prove highly valuable—more so, in fact, than any other recent work. It shows wide knowledge of the literature of economics and admirable catholicity of view. But it does not advance us far toward a solution of disputed questions of theory and practical policy. Moreover, by its very wealth of material, it will confuse many a beginner who is not yet prepared for such a rich diet as is here provided. For him it is frequently less important to master all varieties and shades of economic opinion than to grasp firmly the things that are fundamental—a fact which is sometimes forgotten in this latest addition to American treatises upon economics.

A Short History of Italy (476-1900). By Henry Dwight Sedgwick. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1905.

Mr. Sedgwick addresses the average intelligent person who desires to get a reasonably clear survey of the course of events in Italy from the fall of the Roman Empire to the present time. He disclaims thoroughness, and we have not observed any profound or original interpretations. But he does epitomize with considerable skill the generally accepted views of historians. His work, on the political side, is relatively inferior to the 'Sommario' which Cesare Balbo wrote sixty years ago; but it covers ground which Balbo did not traverse, and Balbo's book has not, to our knowledge, been translated into English. Mr. Sedgwick has little to fear from the abstract of Sismondi's 'Italian Republics' (1832), good but antiquated, or from the Rev. William Hunt's 'History of Italy' (1875), a dry textbook.

The difficulties that confront the historian of Italy are, first, the immense volume of material, and, next, the lack of continuity, or central theme. Until the nineteenth century, Italy was a geographical expression, although her geography included several states which had a lively existence of their own. Mr. Sedgwick's task is not to trace, even compactly, the development of Venice, Florence, and the other political divisions, but to define the movements common to the whole peninsula. So he naturally makes the conflict between the Papacy and the Empire his cardinal topic down to 1300; then the despotisms and the Renaissance in turn absorb his attention. This is logical, and it undeniably makes for clearness.

To criticise Mr. Sedgwick's work in detail would be unfair, since it is avowedly only a sketch, the value of which depends on generals and not on particulars. We might point out that he does not get at the bottom of the Renaissance, and that, on the whole, he lacks capacity to gauge the significance of the great currents of historical evolution; but then, to be just, we should need to add that his description of the surface of events is generally accurate enough. The public for which he writes will scarcely notice his unhistorical habit of mind, which professional students may find annoying. He regards his subject from the literary side, which means that he selects by preference material that is concrete or charged with human interest. Montaigne's 'Journal of Travels in Italy' supplies him with nearly twenty pages of quotations—a rather generous allowance; but the great personages—from Leo I. to Leo XIII.—who crowd the history of Italy are not vividly drawn, unless we except St. Francis of Assisi; portraiture not being one of Mr. Sedgwick's talents.

On the other hand, he does not neglect the artists and the writers, to whom he assigns sufficient space to enable uninformed readers to refer them to their proper period. He has evidently walked the galleries and studied altarpieces with pleasure, and he has his own word to say about many of the painters; witness this remark on Botticelli:

"This rare spirit wandered about half in the world of reality which he ill understood and depicted badly, and half in a world of fantasy which he knew better than any other painter. The secret of this world of fantasy, as he discovered, was motion. If a vision tarries, it becomes touched by the blight of familiarity, soiled by the comradeship of life. The fairy spirit of imagination must be ever on the wing. No artist ever let Sweet Fancy loose as Botticelli did in his two great pictures, The Primavera (Spring) and The Birth of Venus" (p. 246).

This passage represents Mr. Sedgwick at his best. We have him at his worst when he tells us that "the Papacy lay like a cherry between an upper and lower jaw which watered to crunch it" (p. 133)—are we to infer that he crunches his cherries, stone and all?—or that "the moment business expanded beyond the city walls, it *bumped into* feudal rights at every corner" (p. 107); or that "Italy suddenly leaped forward, as if she had drained a beaker of champagne" (p. 182); or that "the blocked current of commerce *poked about* for a new way, and discovered that it could reach the East by doubling the Cape of Good Hope" (p. 264). These and similar blemishes would be less noteworthy in a less bookish writer, but they do not detract from the value of the compendium on its historical side. It can safely be recommended to persons who wish an introduction to the sources of our modern civilization, and to the vicissitudes and achievements of the pleasant land of Italy. No reader will fail to admit that it is written with snap.

Die Sprachfrage in Griechenland. Von Georgios N. Hatzidakis. Athens. 1905. Pp. 144.

On visiting Greece, the ordinary college graduate seems rather surprised to find that the modern Athenian newspapers are printed in the same type which had become familiar to him in his reading of Homer and Herodotus; and if he makes out a few paragraphs on modern events more easily than he would a page of Xenophon, he is ready to believe that the language has been transmitted essentially un-

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changed since the time of Pericles. But if he visits the rural districts, he finds his college Greek of little value to him. Not only is the pronunciation very different from that which presumably he has been taught, but the words are new. A horse is an *alogon*, an irrational animal, a 'brute'; a house is a (Latin) *hospitium*, but with the loss of the first and the last syllables; water is *neró*, apparently from the same stem as "naiad"; wine is *krasí*, a 'mixture'; bread is *psomí*, a mutilated form of the word used in the New Testament for 'sop'—all words which Xenophon would not have understood. Returning for a single day, and having ordinary wants to supply, Plato would be distinctly more helpless in speech among the peasants of modern Greece than Cicero in modern Italy. The latter's demand for bread and meat and wine would be understood at once.

The traveller soon learns that the ordinary speech of the common people in Greece is not represented by the newspapers. Greece has a literary and a popular language. During the centuries of foreign domination, under the Venetians and the Turks, the language of the masses was degraded; it was used for no exalted ends, and many Frankish and Turkish words were introduced. With the revival of the national spirit, a century and a half ago, the use of the old literary language, which had been kept alive by the church and in official documents, was revived also and largely extended; and when the Turkish yoke was thrown off, eighty years ago, very many foreign words were ejected from the language, just as the German language dismissed from its service many French words after the Napoleonic wars, and again after Sedan.

For a full century in Greece the literary and the vernacular languages have been contending for the mastery. The advocates of the literary language have claimed to be the only true Hellenists, and have sought to hand down the very torch which was carried by their glorious ancestors. For a time, they grant, only a few of the Greeks preserved the old tradition, but these were a saving remnant. To adopt the vulgar speech, in their view, would be to give permanence to the degrading influences of foreign domination. The advocates of the speech of the common people, on the other hand, claim that the literary language is artificial, and hence not truly national, while the popular language is simply the latest stage in the development of the ancient Greek tongue.

The contest has been waged with great earnestness. The book before us affords, perhaps, the clearest and fairest view of the present state of the discussion. The author is entitled to speak with authority, being a scholar of no mean eminence. His work on Modern Greek is published in the same series as Whitney's Sanskrit Grammar, though it does not profess to be a complete grammar of the language. The tone of the first part of the present work is fair and judicial, but in the latter part of the volume the author is heated at the thought of the criticisms passed on his course by the friends of the popular language. The main contentions of the book are well supported. The literary language is so firmly established in the usage of the best families as well as of the press that it cannot yield. Many words and expressions which were artificial thirty-five years ago are so no longer, since the younger generation from earliest years has been accustomed to them. Most Greeks of culture would now be quite unable to determine what elements of their ordinary speech had been continually in use in Greece, and what had been restored from the study of ancient authors and grammarians. The extravagant ambitions of some who, in 1870, desired to restore to use the Attic language, or at least the *koiné*, and would admit in the schools the use of no Greek grammar which was not good for the orations of Demosthenes, have yielded. On the other hand, the speech of the common people has been greatly modified under the influence of the schools, the newspapers, and the educated classes. Indefinitely more Greeks to-day than a generation ago understand the ancient words for 'horse,' 'wine,' 'water,' and 'house.' Many words have passed from the literary into the common language, and will remain there. An important observation in this connection is that the common people of Greece do not read with special satisfaction the books or newspapers composed in their dialect. All attempts to maintain such periodical publications have needed subsidies, and have been short-lived, after all, while the Society for the Promotion of Useful Knowledge, under the wise guidance of Mr. Bikélas—who is not only the first novelist, but the first man of letters in Greece—has sold more than half a million volumes of its publications, composed in the literary language. Three translations of the New Testament into modern Greek were published, we believe, before 1870, by the British and Foreign Bible Society, each of the two latter more like than its predecessor to the original. Similarly, a well-known professor of the University at Athens declared that he had rewritten his lectures twice, not so much because of changes to be made in the matter as to bring the language nearer to that of Xenophon, as was required by the sentiment of the time.

The language of the common people, while admirably adapted for klephtic songs and tales of adventure, has not proved well fitted for scientific and philosophical works. A recent translation of the Gospel of Matthew into this dialect has not been successful, since too many of the words and phrases had unworthy associations. Societies have been formed in several towns for the cultivation and propagation of the popular language, but each enthusiastic adherent of the cause has wanted to improve the language in a different way, and so the proposed new words for science and philosophy have been as artificial and as strange to the people as any borrowed from ancient Greece, and the results of these various undertakings have never attained more than a local and dialectic eminence. That the language of the peasants should now become the literary language of Greece, is quite out of the question. The history of the last century shows the futility of further efforts in this direction. A Greek who has anything of importance to say, naturally prefers to say it in the literary language; and if his theme is at all difficult, he does not want to be hampered by an imperfect linguistic instrument. Very likely the literary language will be assimilated still further to the vernacular, but the attempt to take the vernacular and make it by force the language of literature and cultured people, is destined to fail.

Giovanni Antonio Bazzi, hitherto usually styled "Sodoma": The Man and the Painter (1477-1549). A Study. By Robert H. Hobart Cust, M.A. London: John Murray; New York: Dutton. 1906. Pp. xviii., 442.

The production of the above study of Sodoma must have entailed enormous labor, and could have been undertaken only by one who was sincerely enamoured of his subject. Besides examining the works of Bazzi at Siena, at Monte Oliveto, and in half the picture galleries of Europe, Mr. Cust has consulted innumerable books and articles in every language, and has spent long hours in original research among the piled archives of Vercelli, Mantua, Modena, Siena, and Florence. Diligence and enthusiasm could do no more, and the result is a treatise which is practically exhaustive. Certainly, no man will ever be able to write of Sodoma again without consulting it, and, when he has done so, he will not be disappointed. In these pages the reader is never compelled to rely upon the author's *ipse-dixit;* authorities are cited at every step, and copious footnotes are supplemented by an ample appendix of contemporary documents, many of which are here published for the first time. Even in the text itself no desire is shown to pander to ignorance and sloth, and Latin and Italian passages are often quoted verbatim—a method worthy of a more scholarly age than ours, and one which can hardly be too highly commended in a work of this character, since even the best of translations rarely preserves the full flavor of the original.

Mr. Cust's style throughout is clear and simple, and, in treating of artistic matters, he eschews the terminology of the modern scientific school. We hear nothing of "tactile values," of "pattern," or of "space-composition." Bazzi's paintings are described in old-fashioned English, in the old-fashioned way, and the reader is not expected to seek only "artistic pleasure." Mere "illustration" is by no means despised, while, on more than one occasion, pictures are frankly treated as so many documents and used to enforce historical arguments. Such, for example, is the case with the Farnesina frescoes, which, in Mr. Cust's opinion, "give the lie to many of Vasari's insinuations" (p. 147). Thus, in spite of its elaborate catalogue and its numerous and well-chosen half-tone illustrations, the scope of the book before us is mainly biographical; and we submit with some confidence that its full justification is to be found in the fact that, "with Bazzi more than with any other Italian painter, the question of his art has always been complicated by his personal character."

On the other hand, it must be conceded that there is an unnecessary and somewhat fatiguing display of the entire process of inference from the documents. Merely to reprint these, with a succinct statement of results, would have produced a much more

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useful work. Of æsthetic criticism there is virtually none, and Mr. Cust has devoted too much space to the fruitless discussion of Sodoma's character, attempting to demonstrate that the opprobrious nickname was never literally deserved. One's judgment of the allegations of Vasari will depend upon the impression he gets from the work of the wayward painter. Many will feel in such a picture as the "St. Sebastian" or the "Sacrifice of Isaac," at Pisa, a certain unwholesome *morbidezza* that gives color enough to Bazzi's contemporary disrepute. There is, however, no gainsaying more guileless souls who feel no taint in this art. Since the whole contention is one of irreconcilable points of view and not at all of evidence, a biographer of Bazzi would do well merely to make a personal profession on the angels' side or on the other, and proceed promptly to the actual business of chronicle and criticism.

Heroic Romances of Ireland. By A. H. Leahy. Vol. I. London: David Nutt. 1905.

Mr. Leahy's work, which is to be in two volumes, forms the second number of the very attractive "Irish Saga Library" now being published by Mr. Nutt. The first number was a translation by the same author of the 'Wooing of Ferb,' one of the longer and more important Irish sagas, and the present collection also contains pieces of much interest. Besides the translations themselves there is a sensible prefatory essay on Irish literature, and each tale is preceded by an introduction which supplies the reader with the main facts about its age, character, and literary relations. In these introductions, and in the numerous explanatory notes, special students of Celtic also will occasionally find material that concerns them. Mr. Nutt, for example, has contributed an appendix on the much discussed question of the relation between the different versions of the "Táin Bó Cuailnge.'

The first volume contains "The Courtship of Etain," "MacDatho's Boar," "The Sick-Bed of Cuchulainn," "The Exile of the Sons of Usnach," and "The Combat at the Ford" (the fight between Cuchulainn and Fer Diad in the 'Táin Bó Cuailnge'). In the second volume, which we have not yet seen, Mr. Leahy will give versified renderings of five short stories of cattle-raids which lead up to the great Táin. The substance of all, or nearly all, these tales is accessible elsewhere in English, and most of them have been made familiar, and even popular, in Lady Gregory's 'Cuchulainn of Muirthemne.' But Lady Gregory, in accordance with the necessary plan of her book, used some freedom in condensing and combining the stories, whereas Mr. Leahy has adhered in each case to a version actually preserved in manuscript, and in his first volume he has made, at least for the prose portions of the Irish, very close translations. His work, therefore, is not really a repetition of Lady Gregory's, nor, so far as we have observed, of any of his other predecessors in the translation of these texts. With the passages in Irish verse he has dealt more freely, rendering them in rhyme and sometimes imitating the measure of the original. Perhaps this method would be the best if the translator's metrical skill were always equal to his task, but a couplet like the following makes us wish Mr. Leahy had been content with literalness:

"Through the world of mankind, seeing all, can we float,
And yet none, though we see them, their see-ers can note."

It would not be fair, however, to judge his taste by a lapse of this sort. On the whole, his narrative style, if it lacks the peculiar charm and appropriateness of Lady Gregory's or of the best translations of Dr. Whitley Stokes, is yet suitable to its purpose and will be read with pleasure.

With respect to the accuracy of Mr. Leahy's work, we cannot speak so favorably, though he appears to have given much attention to minute details. We have not undertaken to compare the whole translation with the original, but the parts we have examined are uneven in quality, and we are often forced to disagree with Mr. Leahy. The two versions of the story of Etain (which had the benefit of Professor Strachan's revision) are well rendered, and the notes contain suggestions and comments which Irish scholars will be glad to preserve. But in the "Sick-Bed of Cuchulainn," where Mr. Leahy was apparently left to his own resources, the result is less satisfactory, and we have found a number of errors in both the text and the notes. Mr. Leahy is particularly unlucky in his attempts to improve upon Professor Thurneysen's German translation of the same tale. Most of his criticisms are trivial, and simply show that Professor Thurneysen was translating freely; and when there is a real difference of opinion between the two translators, the German scholar, in our opinion, is usually right. At the foot of page 176, for example, *sirsan* should not be rendered "long." The German gives the sense of the passage correctly. Again, on page 81, *ic imdibi* does not mean "for slaying," but "in the act of slaying," and Professor Thurneysen is again right. Professor Windisch's 'Wörterbuch,' which Mr. Leahy constantly quotes against Professor Thurneysen, here supports the correct translation. As for the 'Wörterbuch,' however, it was made in 1881, and should not be taken, as Mr. Leahy apparently takes it, to constitute a higher authority than Professor Thurneysen's translation of the year 1901, particularly in cases where it cites the dubitable testimony of O'Reilly. Professor Windisch's interpretation of *gus*, for example, which Mr. Leahy quotes on page 178, was really taken from O'Reilly and was called in question by Dr. Stokes in the *Revue Celtique* (v., 245). Professor Thurneysen's departures from the 'Wörterbuch' are due in many cases to the advance of thirty years in Irish lexicography. But Mr. Leahy himself does not always follow the guidance of Professor Windisch. On page 180, he translates *écomnart* "death-weakness," as if it were a compound of *éc*, whereas it is really to be divided *é-comnart*, with a negative prefix, and means "weakness" or "debility," as the 'Wörterbuch' has it.

These are only part of the errors we have noted, but they will serve to show that Mr. Leahy's translation must be used with caution when it is important to have an accurate rendering of the text. They are faults of judgment or insufficient information. We regret to add that the work contains unfortunate lapses in English which must be set down to carelessness, for we cannot believe that constructions like the following are deliberate: "Never was there seen . . . more beautiful birds" (p. 58); "The state in which Cuchulain was in" (p. 60); "Let he who is extolled be increased" (p. 185). It is a pity that a book by which the publishers have otherwise done so well should be marred by careless proof-reading.

Mast and Sail in Europe and Asia. By H. Warington Smyth. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1906.

This is a book about boats; and while 'Mast and Sail' is the title, scantling and planking, model and lines, come in for a good share of description and discussion. Wind and water, though proverbially fickle, are nevertheless conservative in their methods, and the sea-kindly boat of 500 B. C. would find herself at home if launched to-day. The beginnings of navigation and naval architecture are too remote for speculation; in her elements of design the deep-heeled ship that carried Saint Paul was probably the same in substance and effect as the dhow of to-day; the dhow, allowing for variations in rig, sails, and materials of construction, is surprisingly, or rather, one should say, naturally, like the long-nosed Gloucester fisherman whose "spoon" bow is regarded as a novelty. If, then, the sailing-ships of the early Christian era were the same in all essentials as the boats of to-day, it is safe to infer that the right principles of boat building, rigging, and sailing were known by the more intelligent peoples in an antiquity whereto history reaches not. And how invariably intelligence, progressiveness, resourcefulness and material prosperity have gone hand in hand with seafaring skill and hardihood, and the ability to shape and handle good boats! Sea Power and the empire that waits upon it must in turn wait upon the ship builder and the mariner; their skill and intelligence, patience and courage have been and must always be mighty factors in the work and growth of mankind. And, as the author of 'Mast and Sail' shows with true seamanlike appreciation and sympathy, the seagoing boats, of every rig imaginable, with manifold variations in mould and structure, yet always in essentials the same, are beating about in all the waters of the earth, and schooling men in the lessons of fortitude, patience, vigilance, alertness, as they have done time out of mind. After reading this book, one regards the abused junk with repentant respect (perhaps, by the way, our Occidental ridicule of the junk is only another case of giving a dog a bad name and hanging him), longs for a thrash to windward in the Siamese *Rua Pet*, or a cruise in a *Redningskoite*, and feels that the *Chasse-marée* and graceful lateener are, after all, worthier craft than our overbred racing machines of aluminum bronze and pendulous lead mines that have the honor of defending and holding the *America's* cup—and are good for nothing else.

'Mast and Sail' will well repay the study of the boat sailer and yacht designer; it gives a broader view of the art and craft than more technical works, and yet is accurate and instructive to the initiated,

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coming as it does from the hand of an expert.

The Central Tian-shan Mountains. By Dr. Gottfried Merzbacher. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1905.

Dr. Merzbacher is well known as a thoroughly equipped and experienced mountain explorer, whose investigations are not summed up in the mere fact of arrival on any given peak or the traversing of some previously uncrossed pass. He is a climber of known efficiency, but he is before everything a scientific student of mountains. Hence, when he sets out to describe two years of travel in a mountain range, we may feel sure that, in what he has to tell us, scientific observation will be more in evidence than mountain adventure.

It was the structure of the range that he went to investigate. Others had preceded him—the Russians, P. P. Semenoff, N. A. Severzoff, and several more, whose names and doings are duly recorded in the introduction; but none of them was a mountaineer, nor were any of them accompanied by experts of the Alpine-guide kind, without whom an inexperienced climber is as helpless in a high mountain region as a landsman would be in mid-Atlantic on a boat without captain or sailors. Dr. Merzbacher had suitable companions and was thus enabled to traverse the range in all directions. He climbed many peaks, though of the actual climbing he says very little. He explored many glaciers, and discovered some of vast dimensions, notably the great Mylchek glacier, about forty-six miles long, and another to the south of it of equal dimensions. The result of his labors is a greatly improved map of the whole district and especially of the neighborhood of the culminating giant Khan-Tengri (*c.* 23,600 feet). This splendid peak, alike in his photographs and his descriptions, stands out as one of the really fine mountains, not in size alone but in form. It far surpasses all its neighbors in altitude (by about 3,000 feet), just as Mont Blanc surpasses its satellites. Yet it is not the knot point of the mountain system. It rises on an offshoot ridge and is built up of secondary rocks, being largely formed of marble. Dr. Merzbacher made no attempt to climb it, nor does his description offer great encouragement to any mere climber to devote himself to the attempt. Alike by the remoteness of its situation and the uncompromising character of its form, it defends its summit from assault by the most serious difficulties.

The book is a contribution of importance to the literature of mountains, and fills a great gap in mountain geography.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alger, George W. Moral Overstrain. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1 net.
Ames, Fisher. The Game of Bridge. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1 net.
Atlay, J. B. The Victorian Chancellors. Vol. I. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Aubert, Louis. Paix Japonaise. Paris: Armand Colin.
Austin, Alfred. The Door of Humanity. Macmillan Co.
Bailey, L. H. Plant Breeding. New Ed. Macmillan Co. $1.25.
Baillie, William, Josiah Warren. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.
Beare, John I. Greek Theories of Elementary Cognition. Henry Frowde.
Boggs, Sara E. Sandpeep. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1.50.
Book of Job. Edited by S. R. Driver. Henry Frowde. 2s. 6d. net.
Bose, Jagadis Chunder. Plant Response as a Means of Physiological Investigation. Longmans.
Boyd, Mary Stuart. The Misses Make-Believe. Henry Holt & Co. $1.50.
Brainerd, Eleanor Hoyt. In Vanity Fair. Moffat, Yard & Co. $1.50 net.
Brown, William Horace. The Glory Seekers. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.50 net.
Byron's Shorter Poems.—Longer Poems.—Dramas and Satires. 3 vols. Caxton Thin Paper Series. London: Newnes; New York: Scribner. $3.75 net.
Canning, Albert S. G. History in Scott's Novels. A. Wessels & Co.
Cary, Elizabeth Luther, and Annie M. Jones. Books and My Food. Moffat, Yard & Co. $1 net.
Cestre, Charles. John Thelwall. Imported by Scribners. $1.
Climenson, Emily J. Elizabeth Montagu, the Queen of the Blue-Stockings. 2 vols. Dutton. $8.
Colvin, Auckland. The Making of Modern Egypt. Dutton. $4 net.
Coubertin, Pierre de. Chronique de France. 1905. Paris.
Crooke, William. Things Indian. Scribners. $3 net.
Dalbiac, Lilian. Dictionary of Quotations (German). Macmillan Co. $2.50.
De Gubernatis, Angelo. Dictionnaire International des Ecrivains du Monde Latin. Part III. Everett-Henriet. Rome: The Author. (Via San Martino al Macao, 11.)
Dickens's Tale of Two Cities. Edited by H. G. Buehler and L. Mason. Macmillan Co.
Downing's United States Customs Tariff, 1897. Revised to January, 1906. R. F. Downing & Co.
Dubois, Abbé J. A. Hindu Manners, Customs and Ceremonies. Translated by Henry K. Beauchamp. Henry Frowde. 6s. net.
Eaches, O. P. Hebrews to II. Peter. Philadelphia: American Baptist Publication Society.
Egan, Maurice Francis. The Ghost in Hamlet, and Other Essays. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
Eleutheroudakis, C. Athens and the Environs: A Practical Guide for Travellers. Lemcke & Buechner.
Francis, M. E. Simple Annals. Longmans. $1.50.
Fredericq, Paul. Corpus Documentorum Inquisitionis Hæreticæ Pravitatis Neerlandicæ. Ghent: J. Vuylsteke.
Grant, Robert. The Law-Breakers. Scribners. $1.25.
Hamilton, Samuel. The Recitation. Philadelphia: Lippincott.
Havell, E. B. Benares: The Sacred City. William M. Stitt, jr.
History of All Nations. Vol. XVII.: The Napoleonic Empire. By Theodor Flathe. Philadelphia: Lea Brothers & Co.
Hitch, Alfred. Rhapsody. New York Supply Co. 25 cents.
Holmes, Samuel J. The Biology of the Frog. Macmillan Co. $1.60.
Hopkins, Herbert M. The Mayor of Warwick. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Hoppin, James Mason. The Reading of Shakespeare. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25 net.
Hosmer, George L. An Historical Sketch of the Town of Deer Isle, Maine. Boston: The Fort Hill Press.
Housman, A. E. A Shropshire Lad. John Lane Co.
How to Buy Life Insurance. By "Q. P." Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.20 net.
Hutten, Bettina von. Pam Decides. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Jaurès, Jean. Studies in Socialism. London: Independent Labor Party.
Journals of the Continental Congress, 1774-1789. Vol. V. Washington.
Kaempfer, Englebert. The History of Japan. Translated by J. G. Scheuchzer. 3 vols. Macmillan Co.
Keble, John. The Christian Year. Imported by Scribners. $1.25 net.
Kent, Charles Foster. The Origin and Permanent Value of the Old Testament. Scribners. $1 net.
Lee, Vernon. Hauntings. John Lane Co.
Liber, Maurice. Rashi. Translated by Adele Szold. Jewish Publication Society of America.
Magazine Articles I Have Read. Arranged by Burton Emmett. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1 net.
Marion, H. John Paul Jones's Last Cruise and Final Resting-Place, the United States Naval Academy. Washington: Geo. E. Howard.
Mills, Weymer Jay. The Ghosts of their Ancestors. Fox, Duffield & Co. $1.25.
Odd Types. By B. K. Broadway Publishing Co. $1.50.
Pepper, Charles M. Panama to Patagonia. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $2.50 net.
Ropes, James Hardy. The Apostolic Age. Scribners. $1.50 net.
Ryan, John A. A Living Wage. Macmillan Co. $1.50 net.
Ryan, Marah Ellis. For the Soul of Rafael. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.50.
Scarritt, Winthrop. Three Men in a Motor Car. Dutton. $1.25 net.
Schauffler, Robert Haven. Where Speech Ends. Moffat, Yard & Co. $1.50.
Stevenson, Burton E. The Girl with the Blue Sailor. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Strong, Josiah. Social Progress, 1906. The Baker & Taylor Co. $1 net.
Swan, H. In Praise of Books. Dutton.
Swinburne, Algernon Charles, The Tragedies of. 5 vols. Harpers.
Taylor, C. Bryson. Nicanor, Teller of Tales. Chicago: A. G. McClurg & Co. $1.50.
Tilton, Theodore. The Fading of the Mayflower. Chicago: A. N. Marquis & Co. $1.50.
Tod, M. N., and A. J. B. Wace. A Catalogue of the Sparta Museum. Henry Frowde.
Trinks, W., and C. Housum. Shaft Governors. D. Van Nostrand Co. 50 cents.
Trollope, Anthony. The Small House at Allington. 2 vols. John Lane Co.
Truesdell, Ella M. Over the Bridge, and Other Poems. Boston: Richard G. Badger.
Turner, Frederick Jackson. Rise of the New West. Harpers. $2 net. [The American Nation.]
Valdés's Capitán Ribot. Edited by F. W. Morrison and P. H. Churchman. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 90 cents.
Vaughan, John. The Wild Flowers of Selborne. John Lane Co.
Wagner, Charles. Wayside Talks. McClure, Phillips & Co. $1 net.
Wallis, I. Henry. The Cloud Kingdom. John Lane Co.
Wardman, Ervin. The Princess Olga. Harpers. $1.50.
Ward, Mrs. Humphry. Fenwick's Career. Harpers. $1.50.
Washington's Farewell Address, and Webster's Bunker Hill Orations. Edited by William T. Peck. Macmillan Co.
Weeden, William B. War Government, Federal and State. 1861-17865. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.50 net.
Wells, Carolyn. Rubáiyát of a Motor Car. Dodd, Mead & Co. 35 cents net.
What Would One Have. Boston: James H. West Co. $1 net.
Wilkinson, Florence. The Far Country. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Williamson, C. N., and A. M. Lady Betty across the Water. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Zangerle, John A. The Larger View of Municipal Ownership.—Rockefeller before a Jury. Cleveland.

A delightful, humorous novel by *Sydney Preston*, author of "*The Abandoned Farmer*," entitled ON COMMON GROUND, an idyll in both treatment and subject, is just published. The *N. Y. Sun* said of Mr. Preston's earlier book: "Full of spontaneous, hearty humor, with no trace of coarseness. . . . Absolutely overflowing with fun. The style is excellent."

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